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1. On the occurrence of Maestrichtien fossils at Kacch station in British Baluchistan.

By HEM CHANDRA DAS GUPTA.

A group of black shales was described by Mr. Oldham belemnite shales from the abundance of Belemnites in them. 1 The fossils obtained from them have been examined by Dr. Noetling 2 who assigned a lower cretaceous, neocomian (hauterivien) age to these rocks. Fossils from the belemnites shales have also been obtained by Mr. Tipper.8 These belemnite shales are overlaid by another group of upper cretaceous (maestrichtien) shales which are often lithologically much alike. Moreover as there is a stratigraphical gap between the upper and lower cretaceous, and as either one or the other may be missing in certain sections, some care is needed to distinguish them. As an instance of this I may cite the case of an exposure of shales at Kacch, a station on the Sind-Pishin section of the North Western Railway, which was visited by me in the summer of 1907 with the Presidency College Geological party.

A geologically coloured map of British Baluchistan has been published, and it appears from the map that a neocomian age has been assigned to this locality. A few fossils collected from this locality, however, go to prove that

Rec. Geol. Surv., Ind., Vol. xxv, pt. 1, p. 19.
 Pal. Ind., Ser. XVI, Vol. i, pt. 2.
 Rec. Geol. Surv., Ind., Vol. xxxviii, pt. 1, p. 29.
 Rec. Geol. Surv., Ind., Vol. xxxi, pl. 18.

the shales exposed here are maestrichtien in age. Fossils from the maestrichtien beds of Baluchistan have been described by Dr. Noetling, and we are indebted to Prof. Vredenburg for a paper dealing with the zonal distribution of the upper cretaceous fossils of this area.2 The Presidency College collection includes Trochosmilia sp., Pachydiscus sp. (an immature specimen), Heteroceras polyplocum, Roem., and Baculites binodosus. Noetl. It may be mentioned here that two species of Pachydiscus and Heteroceras polyplocum have been recorded from the upper cretaceous rocks by Prof. Vredenburg in his work above alluded to.

The specimen of Trochosmilia has been found to be specifically different from the only species of the genus described from the upper cretaceous beds by Dr. Noetling.8 The height of the corallum is 60 mm., the large diameter of the calyx is 47 mm., and the small diameter is 32 mm. The corallum seems to have been widened at a short distance from the base. calyx is elliptical, and the upper surface being worn out, the number of the septa could not be distinguished. The columellar fossula is marked, narrow and elongated and occupie about two-fifths of the major axis of the calyx. The corallum is markedly bent in the direction of the small axis. The surface is covered with continuous costae which are alternately equal and the intercostal space is very finely granulated. basal portion is lost and there is no trace of an epitheca.

The specimen described above differs from Trochosmilia protectans, Noetl., found in the upper cretaceous beds of Balu-This difference consists chiefly in the shape of the corallum. Dr. Noetling has given the dimension of six different specimens of his species, and, with the exception of the small specimens, the large diameter of the calyx of his species has been found to be more than double the length of the small diameter of the calyx, but the corresponding ratio in the present case is only 146. The costae of T. protectans are granulated at the upper margin, a feature not noticed in the specimen described here, while the intercostal granulation is not to be found in Dr. Noetling's specimen. The absence of epitheca in the Kacch specimen is also another noticeable feature. The specimen has a somewhat general resemblance with Trochosmilia inflexa, Reuss. which has also been obtained from the Trichinopoly beds of Southern India. There is, however, a remarkable difference between them in the arrangement of the costae as in Reuss's species a group of three

Pal. Ind., Ser. XVI, Vol. i, pt. 3.
 Rec. Geol. Surv., Ind., Vol. xxxvi, pt. 3, pp. 172—182.
 op. cit., p. 9, pl. I, figs. 7—10.
 Denk. Akad. Wien. Math. Naturwiss. Klasse. vii, p. 86, pl. v, figs.

⁵ Pal. Ind., Ser. VIII, Vol. iv, no. 4—5, p. 15, pl. II, figs. 1—4.

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unequally thinner costae is bounded on two sides by two stronger ones. After consulting all available information, I have very little doubt that we are here dealing with a new species of *Trochosmilia*, but I have advisedly refrained from naming it on the evidence of a single and rather ill-preserved specimen.

2. A dubious passage in the Ilminsky edition of the Bāburnāma.

By H. BEVERIDGE.

In an interesting passage of his Memoirs the Emperor Bābur gives some particulars about the birth of his third son Hindāl Mīrzā. This took place at Kabul early in 925 A.H., and about the end of February, 1519. Bābur was out in camp at the time and in a valley north or north-west of Peshawar, and was engaged in a raid against the Yūsufzais.

The passage in which he refers to the coming birth of Hindal occurs at p. 220a of the imprint of the Haidarabad MS., and at p. 250 of Leyden and Erskine's translation, and

is as follows :-

"After Humāyūn's birth, his mother bore several other children, but none of them survived. Hindāl had not yet been born. While I was in these parts, a letter came from Māhim in which was written, 'Be it a boy, or be it a girl, give me whatever my Fortune grants me, I shall regard the child as mine, and shall rear it.'

On Friday, the 26th of this month (Muharram 925 equal to 28th January, 1519), I, in this very camp, gave Hindāl to Māhim, and I wrote a letter to this effect and sent it to Kabul by Yūsuf 'Alī Rikābdār. As yet, Hindāl was not born.'

In a subsequent passage, 258 of Leyden and Erskine, and 227a of the Haidarābad text, Bābur says that on Friday 2 Rabī'u-l-awwal (4th March, 1519) he received a written report of Hindāl's birth. He adds, "As the news came at the time I was making an expedition against India, I took the birth

ا In the Elphinstone MS. and in the Haidarābad text the words are المرزند جالى ساخالى المعتملة المعتم

as a good omen and called the child Hindal (i.e., taker of India)."
By this time he had left the Yūsufzai country and was in India, near Bhera and the Jhilam.

With the exception of the Kehr MS., which is the foundation of the Ilminsky edition, the above is all that the manuscripts of the Memoirs, whether Turki or Persian, tell about Hindal's birth. The Ilminsky edition, however, p. 281, pp. 45, 46, vol. ii, of Pavet de Courteille's French translation, has the

following remarkable paragraph:-

"The explanation of the above statement (i.e., the statement about Māhim's letter, etc.), is that up to this time there had been several children by the same mother as Humāyūn's', namely, one boy, younger than him, but older than all my other (male) children, and three girls, of whom Mihr Jan was one, but they had all died in infancy. I wished much for a full brother or sister to Humayun. At this time Dildar Aghācha conceived, and I kept on saying, 'How nice it would have been if it were the offspring of Humayun's mother!' Her Highness my mother (Hazrat Walida) observed (honorific plural), 'If Dildar Aghacha bear a son, how would it be if L took him and brought him up.' I said, 'Capital.' Now, the usual way in which women take a prognostic about the sex of a coming child is to take two pieces of paper, and write on one, 'Ali or Hasan, and on the other, Fatima. Then they shut up those in two balls of clay and put them into a cup of water. The first to open is to them a prognostic of the sex. Should it contain a boy's name, the child will be a boy: if there be a girl's name, it will be a girl. The experiment was made, and a boy's' name came out. When I got the good news, I at once wrote anti sent off a letter. A few days afterwards, God bestowed a son upon me. Three days after the birth, and before my letter reached (?), they took the child from the mother, with or without her leave, and brought it to our house where it was When I sent the news of the birth (more probably, the news of the result of the experiment), she (my mother), perceiving that her desire had been fulfilled, gave the child the name of Hindal, which was one of good augury. By this arrangement I obtained both a younger brother and a son."

A remarkable thing about this paragraph is that it comes into the text by the head and shoulders, so to speak. That is to say, it does not come in immediately after the passage in which Bābur refers to Māhim's letter, and which occurs in all the texts, but comes in after Bābur has gone off to another subject; and is describing how he put up a large stone platform in the valley. This seems to me to prove that the paragraph does not belong to the text of the Memoirs, but is an explanatory note which in the course of copying has got foisted into the text.

But the most remarkable thing in the paragraph is the reference to Bābur's mother as being still alive. As a matter

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of fact, she died 14 or 15 years previously, in the beginning. namely, of 911 A.H., or July, 1505. This at once disposes of the idea that the paragraph is the work of Babur. Nor can we get out of the difficulty by supposing that Hazrat Walida is equivalent to Walida-i-Sultan, mother of the king, or of the heir. and that it is Mahim the wife of Babur and mother of Humāvun to whom the words refer. Against this interpretation there is the fact that Pavet de Courteille, the experienced Turki scholar, has taken the words to refer to Bābur's mother. and there is the still more convincing circumstance that the paragraph ends by saying that the result of the arrangement was that the writer (i.e., Babur) got both a younger brother and a son. If the child was made over to the grandmother, that is, to Bābur's mother, he might say that the child became his younger brother. But the expression has no meaning if the infant was given to his wife. It certainly seems to me that the writer of the paragraph, whoever he was, had forgotten or never knew that Babur's mother had died in 911. He also, I think, imagined that Māhim was the name of Bābur's mother! The paragraph is valuable as a note, and we are indebted to whoever wrote it. But it seems impossible that either Babur or Humāyūn was the writer. Apart from the mistake already referred to, there are the errors of making the lady give the name Hindal to the child, and of describing Mahim as having been the mother of three daughters before Hindal's birth. According to Gulbadan Begam, who was Māhim's step-daughter, she had only had two daughters, Mihr Jan (or Jahan) and Ishan Daulat (p. 90 of the translation of the Memoirs). whom Māhim bore after Humāvūn, and before 925, was Bārbūl Mîrza, and he, as well as his sister Mihr Jan, accompanied their father to Samarkand in 916 or 917 (Gulbadan Begam's Memoirs, 91).

Nor do I think that strict Sunnis like Bābur and Humā-yūn would in exemplifying the names written on pieces of paper have only referred to three specially Shī'a names, viz., Fāṭima, 'Alī and Ḥasan. It is possible that Jahangīr wrote the paragraph, but one would expect him to have been better informed about the date of death of his great grandfather's

mother.

3. Note sur les dénominations à donner aux sabres hindous.

Remise par M. P. Holstein de Lyon.

Dans son ouvrage 'A Description of Indian and Oriental Armour' (new Edition, Londres, 1896), Lord Egerton of Tatton donne fréquemment aux sabres les noms de 'Shamshir' et de 'Talwar.'

Le mot "Shamshir," ou "Shamsher" n'est-il pas le mot persan qui veut dire Sabre d'une façon générale, et le mot "Talwar" n'est-il pas le terme Hindou ayant la même signification?

S'il en est bien ainsi, "Shamshir" est le terme générique de tout sabre persan, ou d'origine persane, quelle que soit la forme, mais dont la poignée est généralement en forme de crosse de pistolet, souvent revêtue de deux plaques de corne, d'ivoire, de morse ou autre matière recouvrant la soie. Tels sont les types qui sont représentés dans la Planche XV du dit ouvrage sous les numéros 658-659 et 755-757.

"Talwar" serait le terme générique de tout sabre hindou ou hindo-musulman, quelle que soit la forme de la poignée, munie ou non d'un arc de jointure, la courbure ou la nature et qualité de la lame, à l'exception du Khanda, ou Khounda (Sabre de Sacrifice) et de la Pata (épée à-gantelet) qui constituent l'un et l'autre des types très spéciaux faciles à reconnaitre.

Ce qui precéde est-il exact?

Dans le catalogue de "Tsarkoe-Selo," (musée del'Empereur de Russie) il n'est question que de trois noms :

Le "Johour," qui, d'après les reproductions, aurait la poignée munie d'un arc de jointure.

2. Le "Poulouar," dont la poignée est ouverte, sans arc de jointure.

3. Le 'Khounda.'

Lord Egerton ne parle du Johour (ou Jauhar) qu'une fois : Page 132, en note du Sabre No. 652 qu'il appelle simplement "Talwar."

Le même Lord Egenton ne parle du "Poulouar" que deux fois :

Page 51. With a hilt of a characteristic outline, and with drooping quillons. Page 109 en note du sabre No. 392 qu'il appelle aussi "Talwar."

Il semble donc bien que nous voila en présence de trois termes :

1. Talwar, nom du sabre en général.

2. Johour, sabre dont la poignée est munie d'un arc de jointure.

3. Poulouar, sabre dont la poignée ouverte est sans arc de jointure.

M. Sinclair, dans l'Indian Antiquary (Edited at Bombay,

Vol. II, 1874, p. 216) cite de son côté les noms suivants :

1. Surai, nom mahratte du sabre droit jusqu'aux 🖁 de sa longueur et de la courbe ;

2. Ahir, nom mahratte du sabre dont la courbure com-c

mence dès la poignée :

3. Phirangi, nom mahratte d'un sabre à lame droite d'origine européenne ou fabriquée en imitation de celle-ci.

Patta, nom dans l'Hindustan d'un sabre à lame longue, mince, avec garde à gantelet et prise á àngle droit avec la lame, utilisée par les tireurs de profession.

Sous le nom de "Sirohi," Lord Egerton parle (page 105) du "chief favourite of all the various swords found throughout Rajputana, a slightly curved blade, shaped like that of Damascus" et plus loin (page 113), sous le nom de "Serye" (Sirohi) "One of a hard temper, consequently brittle and very sharp" porté, d'aprés Malet par les silladars et les yekandir, troupes mahrattes de Sindia et d'Holcar.

Je veux croire que le "Surai" de M. Sinclair et le "Sirohi," ou "Serye" de Lord Egerton sont la même arme, mais est-ce le genre de courbure de la lame qui détermine ce nom?

D'aprés Tod (Annals of Rajasthan, I, p. 646), le Sirohiest un sabre legérement courbe ayant la forme de ceux de Damas, célui de tous les Sabres qui a la plus grande prédilection chez les Rajpouts (Lord Egerton n'a fait que recopier cette description sans aller plus loin n'en donnant dans ses planches ou figures aucun type).

Lord Egerton appelle "Teghá," un large sabre courbe en usage chez les Rángars Hindous en les Rajpouts Mahomitans

(page 105) (voir aussi la Planche 24, fig. 399) page 104).

Est-ce la courbure trés accentuée de la lame qui détermine ce nom de "Tegha? et en ce cas le "Ahir" Mahratte de M. Sinclair, et le "Tegha" de Lord Egerton seraient-ils la même chose?

Le "Phirangi" de M. Sinclair se comprend facilement. Lord Egerton lui donne les noms de "Farang," ou "Firangi"; mais c'est bien la même arme dont la lame droite, longue et mince est une lame d'épée ou de sabre droit européen, montée avec une poignée munie d'un arc de jointure et généralement ouatée (voir fig. 24, No. 579).

Mais alors, comment se fait-il que Lord Egerton donne aussi le nom de "Farang" à un sabre qu'il reproduit (p. 104) dans la figure 24 sous le No. 523, et qu'il décrit ((page 117) comme ayant été introduit par les portugais? Il n'y a rien de portugais ni d'européen dans cette arme, et, sauf erreur de ma part, ce sabre No. 523, que Lord Egerton appelle Farang est un Khanda. Il y a lá une inadvertance ou une confusion que je ne m'explique pas?

Voici encore un autre nom qui je trouve dans l'ouvrage de Lord Egerton, celui de "Abbasi."

Les descriptions qu'il en fait sont si differentes que l'on

ne sait à quel genre de sabre ce nom doit s'appliquer :

Ainsi (page 110), No. 400 (Abbasi) est decrit: Straight blade of Damascus steel, strengthened at the back with perforated steel supports. No. 401: watered Khorassan blade.

(Page 118), Les Nos. 539 et 540: Deeply curved blades, et en note: (cf. from Codrington collection) Abbasi, scimitar

of superior steel.

(Page 132), le No. 653: Slightly recurved fluted blade of bright steel; hilt with knuckle guard and griffin-head pommel.

Voila done trois sabres portant le même nom (Abbasi), dont l'un a la lame droite renforcée sur le dos par des renforts d'acier, l'autre trés courbe comme celle d'un cimeterre, la troisième au contraire tres légérement courbe.

Cela n'est pas vraisemblable; trois types si differents ne peuvent pas porter le même nom; alors, que veut dire le terme

" Abbasi ? "

Vient maintenant l' "Asseel" ou "Asil".

A la Page 113, Lord Egerton, d'après Malet, dit: "more tough (than the Serye) and less sharp; et à la page 124 (en note): Slightly curved sword of watered steel with two grooves; plain handle. Time of Tippoo.

. Qu'est-ce donc que l' "Asil"?

Lord Egerton donne le nom de "Pattisa" à un sabre large, droit, à double tranchant s'élargissant vers la pointe (page 117, No. 526). D'après la réproduction qu'il en donne (p. 104, fig. 24), la lame se termine effectivement en forme de spatule; elle est droite, à double tranchant et la poignée se termine en un pommeau à coupole et est munie de quillons se prolongeant en un long écusson ou languette de chaque côté du plat de la lame.

Sauf contre indication, je retiens ce nom pour tout sabre de

cette forme. Suis-je dans le vrai?

Le "Sosunpattah" (voir page 124, et fig. 24, No. 578) serait un sabre court, large et lourd, légèrement incurvé, la pointe inclinant du côté du dos. D'après la figure, la poignée ressemblerait beaucoup à celle du Khanda. Est-ce que c'est la forme de la lame (Súsanpattá: Lily Leaf) qui affecte en effet un peu celle de la feuille du lys, qui détermine ce nom?

Le "Katti Talwar" (voir page 123, No. 580 et fig. 24) est-il ainsi nommé parce qu'il a une lame presque droite, dont la pointe est formée par le dos qui se recourbe légèrement du côté du tranchant ou parceque la poignée, surmontée d'une pointe beaucoup plus courte qu'elle ne l'est géneralement, est munie d'un arc de jointure en simple arc de cercle. Que veut dire le mot "Katti"?

Voici, encore d'autres formes de sabres que reproduit Lord

Egerton dans la fig. 24 (page 104):

No. 528: lame légérement courbe, à un seul tranchant,

la pointe se relevant légèrement du côté du dos; poignée, avec arc de jointure en double courbe, couronnée d'un pommeau en coupole surmonté d'un petit bouton; .

No. 530: lame large et droite avec nervure médiane et paraissant étre à double tranchant ; poignée semblable à celle du No. 528 ;

No. 576: lame droite à double tranchant dont la pointe est à forme obtuse; poignée comme celle des précédentes;

No. 405: lame analogue à celle d'un grand couteau, à dodroit, et trés pointue, tranchant en dents de scie : poignée avant la forme des scies à main des menuisiers.

Lord Egerton, malgré les caractères differents de ces sabres ne leur donne aucun nom ; dans quelles séries faut-il les classer?

Ce n'est pas tout. Lord Egerton cite d'autres noms, mais, malheureusement, ses descriptions sont des plus sommaires et aucune reproduction ne les accompagne:

Page 118, No. 537 et 538:—"Farang Katti"; lames cannelées (Vizianagram). D'apres le mot "Farang," ces lames seraient d'origine ou d'imitation européenne; consequeniment elles seraient droites et minces comme des lames d'épée ou de latte de cavalerie.

Le "Katti" par contre (voir ci-dessus) aurait une lame trés legérément courbe; comment ces deux noms peuvent-ils se concilier?

Page 117, En note du N° 527:-" Dhoup." straight blade used by most of the Deccanees (Ain-i-Akbari)."

Le mot "Dhoup" est-il le nom d'un sabre et en ce cas la description du No. 527 se rapportant à un Firangi, les mots "Dhoup" et "Firangi" voudraient-ils dire la même chose?

- · Ailleurs, page 123, Lord Egerton public un longue note accompagnant le No. 581, dans laquelle il passe en revue d'autres noms tirés des collections de la Tour de Londres, de Codrington et autres:
 - 1. "Sultani": Very heavy clumsy sword of coarse waved steel. Plain handle (Seringapatam). Time of Tippoo. Invented by him for the use of officers in his service. 338, Tower, additional collection. The blade is slightly curved and has inscriptions in tiger strines.
 - "Jumgheerdha": Long, narrow, straight sword et-2. tached to a kind of basket-handle slightly plated. Time of Hyder-Ali. Worn by the poligars of Nugger.
 - "Goliah": Heavy sword, slightly bent, made of fine 3. waved steel, back and handle inlaid with silver. Hindustan and Lahore, 1780. Taken at the siege of Seringapatam. Used by men of rank.
 - ".Kassidgode": Sabre of fine waved steel, blade grooved; handle and ferrule ornamented with gold.

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Hindostan, 1794. Taken at the siege of Seringa-

"Lall-i-wall" . Narrow curved sword, made of waved 5. steel, with very broad back and gilt hilt. Hindostan. Tippoo Sultan's time.

"Mahmud Bandar": Large broad sword slightly 6 curved, with two wide grooves of very fine waved steel with old plated handles. Used by men of rank

in Tippoo's time.

"Nimcha," or "Tegha," or "Goliah": Small light sword, slightly curved, made of hard waved steel 7. (pigeon's eye); plain handle. Hindostan, 1760. Boorhampore. Taken at Seringapatam.

(Ailleurs nous avons vu que le "Tegha" etait un large sabre courbe; que le "Goliah" était un sabre lourd, légérement recourbé; comment peut-on assimiler un sabre (Nimcha) petit et léger, au 'Tegha' large et au "Goliah" lourd?).

"Shah Nawaz Khani": Pour celui-ci nos incertitudes

sont encore plus grandes;

Lord Egerton en cite trois et chacune des descriptions que donne la note sont differentes:

A. A broad heavy sword of coarse waved steel. Scythe shaped, figured iron handle.

- B. Point inclined downwards. Plain handle.
 C. Handle of watered steel. Back strengthened by plates of figured iron, ornamented with gold and silver. This weapon taken at Scringapatam was invented by a Persian Officer of Hyder's army (Nawaz Khan) whose name it bears. It was used chiefly by men of rank.
 - " Alamani": Shaped like the old German Hussar sabre. Hence probably its name. Fine, hard, clouded steel; gilt handle. Guzerat, 1600. Used probably by Hyder's German cavalry.

(Comment la date 1600 s'accorde t'elle avec celle à laquelle vivait Hyder-Ali? En 1600, du reste, il n'y avait pas de hussards allemands!)

10. "Saif": long, heavy, two-edged sword of good waved

Plain handle.

Voila donc dix noms de sabres qui paraissent dater des dernières années du XVI siècle. Pour établir les distinctions qui les font différer les uns des autres, et qui les font différer aussi des autres sabres cités plus haut portant tous des noms tout différents, il faudrait en avoir des reproductions ou photographies. Comment et où puis-je me les procurer?

Ces reproductions seraient d'autant plus necessaires que je remarque que des personnalités aussi autorisées que lé Col. H. Yule, C.B. dans la note qui figure en première page de l'ouvrage 14 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [January, 1911.]

de Lord Egerton, se sont declarées incapables de traduire ou d'expliquer certains de ces noms tels que ceux de "Ayda Kathi" (probably Telugu....qu'est ce que Telugu?), "Jumgheerda", "Kassidgode," "Lall-i wall," "Mahmud-Bander," se bornant à dire des trois derniers qu'ils sont "apparently name of places in Hyder's dominions."

JANUARY, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 4th January 1911, at 9-15 P.M.

The Hon. Mr. JUSTICE ASUTOSH MUKHOPADHYAYA, M.A., D.L., Vice-President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Mr. I. H. Burkill, Mr. J. A. Chapman, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Mr. F. H. Gravely, Mr. H. G. Graves, Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, Mr. H. H. Hayden, Mr. D. Hooper, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Dr. Indumadhab Mallick, Mr. J. C. R. Johnston, Hon. Mr. E. D. Maclagan, Rai Motilal Ganguli, Bahadur, Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, Mr. S. C. Williams, Major F. N. Windsor, I.M.S.

• Visitors:—Mrs. Burkill, Dr. W. Chowdry, Miss Graves, Mr. and Mrs. J. Insch, Mrs. Windsor.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

.Twenty-two presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Capt. J. C. Kunhardt, I.M.S., Lieut.-Colonel R. B. Roe, I.M.S., and Mr. C. Ito had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The Chairman reported that up to date no essay had been received in competition for the Elliott Prize for Scientific Research during 1910.

The General Secretary read a reply from the Military Secretary to the Viceroy, expressing His Excellency's willingness to become the Patron of the Society and offering Lord Hardinge's thanks for the copy of the Centenary Review sent to him:

The following two gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Pandit Anand Koul, Inspector of Customs and Excise Department Kashmir Province, and Vice-President of the Srinagar Municipality, proposed by Mr. G. H. Tipper, seconded by Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana. Dr. Suresh Prasad Sarvadicari, M.D., proposed by Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, seconded by Babu Nilmani Chakravarti.

Major L. Rogers delivered a short lecture with lantern slides on "The History of Cholera and its spread to Europe."

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Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri exhibited a newly discovered "Aryadeva" manuscript and read a note on it.

The following papers were read:-

- 1. "Gaveta." By WILLIAM IRVINE.
- 2. Pandits of the 17th century. By Mahamahopadhyaya Harafrasad Shastri.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the

LIEUT.-COLONEL A. H. NOTT, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present :-

11th January 1911, at 9-30 P.M.

Lieut.-Colonel J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. Gopal Chandra Chatterjee, Dr. Indumadhab Mallick, Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I M.S., Major J. G. P. Murray, I.M.S., Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Captain Megaw, I.M.S., showed X-ray photographs of-

- 1. Fracture of the electranon process of the ulna treated by the insertion of a screw, which was subsequently removed.
 - . 2. Ruptured ligamentum patella.

Colonel Calvert read a paper on Cirrhosis of the Liver, which was discussed by Lieut.-Colonel Nott, Majors Murray and Rogers, Captain Megaw and Dr. G. C. Chatterjee.

4. List of Fortuguese Jesuit Missionaries in Bengal and Burms (1576-1742).

By REVS. L. BESSE, S.J., and H. HOSTEN, S.J.

From the end of the XVIth century down to the middle of the XVIIIth, Bengal was one of the mission-fields of the Society of Jesus. But, the Jesuits were not alone. The Augustinians, who came to Bengal in 1599 and withdrew only in 1867, were a much larger body in these parts. They were the principal missionary body. About 1714, we find the Capuchins with a house at Chandernagore. French Jesuits were settled there c. 1693-1778. There was, besides, always a certain number of the secular clergy doing parish-work in the Portuguese settlements. The whole of the Coromandel Coast, Orissa, Bengal, Pegu, etc., all depended on the Diocese of Meliapur from the time of its erection in 1606 to the modern times when the Vicariates Apostolic were created (1834).

Of the work done by the Augustinian Friars, the Capuchins and the secular clergy, we are less able to speak. The literature on the subject, though not wanting, is difficult to reach. We are somewhat better situated with regard to the history of the Jesuit Missions, though here, too, we wish we were in possession of fuller information. Printed records of the work done in the first decade of the XVIIth century are, relatively speaking, plentiful. The newly arrived missionaries lived in eventful times and wrote long accounts; but, it did not last. After 1610 little appeared in print; after 1632, the history of the Portuguese Jesuits is almost a complete blank. By way of compensation, the French Jesuits of Chandernagore (1690-1778) are repeatedly heard of in Lettres édifiantes et curieuses.

To write a detailed history of our early Missions in Bengal is yet an impossibility. The materials for such a history have

not been collected.

• Meanwhile, we must welcome, as a valuable contribution towards that history, a list of Portuguese Jesuits in Bengal communicated by the Rev. Fr. L. Besse, S.J., and derived from the Catalogues of the Malabar Province S.J. I have translated it from the Latin and annotated it, adding at times details descriptive of persons to be found in Catal. Miss. Madurensis, Trichinopoli, 1910, Appendix. However incomplete this list will appear, every name, every date will serve as a landmark on the path of the historian.

At no time in the XVIIth and XVIIIth centuries were the Jesuits very numerous in Bengal. The following statistics culled by Father Besse from Catalogues and Annual Letters bear out this fact convincingly,1

1601	 7	1628	 7	1705	 2
1613	 3	1630	 7	1708	 1
1615	 6	1632	 8	1718	 1
1616	 7	1633	 2	1729	 2
1617	 7	1640	 3	173 0	 1
1618	 8	1642	 4	1731	 1
1620	 9	1654	 3	1737	 2
1623	 4	1688	 4	1740	 1
1626	 7	1697	 4		

H. H., S.J.

1604.

IN BENGAL [BENGALLA].

IN THE RESIDENCE OF CHANDECAN [Chandecanensi].

Fr. Andrew Boves, 2 Preacher and Confessor.

Fr. Dominic Souza, ⁸ Confessor.

In the Residence of the Island of Sundiva.

Fr. Blasius Nunes, Preacher and Confessor.

Fr. Natalis [Natalius] Salerno, Preacher and Confessor.

3 Dominic de Sousa: born at Boeyro, Diocese of Braga, in 1555; was admitted to the Society in 1586; taught Grammar; went to India in ?; came to Bengal in 1598. No trace of him being found in the records of 1609, it is possible that he died in 1608, though, on the other hand, he may be the Dominic de Sousa, of the Province of Entre Douro e Minuo,

may be the Dollmine de Sousa, of the Frovince of Entre Dource & Minds, Diocese of Braga, who died at Cochin in, 1623, aged "65 years," 38 of which he had spent in the Society. Cf. Sommervogel.

4 Blasius Nunes: At Chittagong died in 1612 Father Blasius Nunes, a Portuguese of the Priorate of Crato, aged 41 years, of which he had spent 24 in the Society, and 12 on the Bengal Mission. His companion, Father Emmanuel Pires, was away at the time in the Island of Sundiva. Father Nunes had come to India in 1597 (Franco). da Camara Manoel mentions him in his list under 1597 as not yet a

priest.

5 Natalis Salerno: a Sicilian, died on April 3, 1608, in the Bay of

¹ Cf. Catal. Miss. Madurensis, Trichinopoli, 1909, App. 2 Andrew Boves: a letter of his, dated Siriam. in Pegu, March 28, 1600, is found in Copia d'una del P. Nicola Pimenta, Visitatore della C. di G. nell' India Orientale. . . . Roma, 1601, 8°, pp. 80-83. Cf. SOMMERVOGEL, Bibl. de la C. de J., Vols. II and VIII, Col. 1896. Born at Messina in 1569; admitted in 1585; taught Humaniora; a missionary in 1600-06; Procurator of the Province of Cochin in 1606-10; was 7 years in the Mission of Mogor [this means probably Bengal 1600-06], and died in Malabar in 1634. He had come to India in 1597, not yet a priest (Franco). His arrival is noted only under 1602 in da Camara Manoel's list: Missões dos Jesuitas no Oriente, Lisboa, 1894, p. 153.

In the Residence of the Island of Sundiva.

Fr. John Mary Grecus, Professed of 4 vows. Fr. Blasius Nunez, Professed of 4 vows.

Deceased.

Fr. Balthasar de Sequeira, on his way from the Kingdom of Siam $[Si\tilde{a}o]$ to the Port of Tenasserim, in the month of November of the year 1609.²

IN THE HOUSE OF PEGU WITH ONE RESIDENCE ONLY.

Fr. Emmanuel Pires, Superior; Prof. of 4 vows.

Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca⁸ [a Fonsequa], Preacher and Conjessor.

1611.

In the House of Pegu with one Residence only.

Fr. John Mary Grecus, Superior; Prof. of 4 vows.

Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca [a Fonseca], Preacher; Confessor.

IN THE RESIDENCE OF THE ISLAND OF SUNDIVA.

Fr. Emmanuel Pires, Super. of the Resid.; Prof. of 4 v. Fr. Blasius Nunes, Prof. of 4 v.

Bengal. He was doing duty as Chaplain to the Portuguese fleet, then at war with the king of Arrakan, when, in the course of the engagement, the ship which bore him caught fire. All perished to a man. Father Salerno had come to India in 1600, a priest (Franco), and had laboured some years among the Portuguese stationed in the fortress of Siriam (Pegu).

1 John Mary Grecus: we find mentioned under 1600 as leaving for India "P. João Ma Graeci, Italianus." (Da Camara Manuel). Franco calls him P. Joannes Greco, Siculus. He cannot be identified with Fr. Jean Maria of C. Sommervogel, op. cit., Vol. V, Col. 546. The works ascribed to him by Sommervogel are those of Fr. John Mary Campori, who came in 1597. Cf. ibid., Vol. II. However, Greco's biography as given by Sommervogel may be accepted. Born at Catania in 1572; admitted in 1587; taught Grammar and Rhetoric, in 1604, at Punicael, Fishery Coast; in 1608 in Pegu; died at Coulam (Quilon) on September 25, 1641.

² Balthasar de Sequeira: came to India, already a priest, in 1578, a Portuguese. Cf. Franco's and da Camara Manoel's list. He is certainly the same as Bartholomew Sequeira in Sommervogel.

8 One Emmanuel de Fonseca came to India in 1599; not yet a priest (Franco); "humanista," writes da Camara Manoel.

(From the 3rd Catalogue).

THE HOUSE OF PEGU AND THAT OF BENGAL.

In this house of Pegu there are two, whereas in that of Bengal there reside three. Commander [dux] Sebastian Gonsalves gave them 1,000 gold tangas.

(From the 1st Catalogue.)

3.1 Fr. Emmanuel Pires: from Monte Mor o Novo, in the Diocese of Evora; mediocre strength; aged 46; 29 of Society; after completing his course of Philosophy, he studied Theology during 4 years; taught Humaniora; has spent 16 years in the Missions [in Christianitate]; was during 9 years Superior of the Residence of Pegu, that of Bengal and others; Prof. of 4 yows.2

4. Fr. John Mary Grecus: a Sicilian from Catania; robust; aged 40; 25 years of Society; after his Philosophy, he studied Theology during 3 years; taught Rhetoric 1 year; in the Mission 7 years; Superior 3 years; Prof. of 4 vows.

5. Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca: from the town of Cabeça de Vide, in the Diocese of Elvas; mediocre strength; aged 35; 18 years of Society; studied Philosophy; nearly completed his

Theology; has now been over a year Superior in Pegu.

7. Fr. Didacus [sic] Nunes: from Monte Mor o Novo, in the Diocese of Evora; aged 31; 15 years of Society; studied Philosophy; Theology during 4 years; taught Grammar during one year and a half.

1 This is the serial number in the Catalogue.

² At Siripur, along the eastern embouchure of the Ganges, died on May 8, 1616, in the fulness of his labours, Father Emmanuel Pires, a Portuguese, born at Monte Mor, in the Archdiocese of Evora. We read in the Annual Letters of Cochin (1617) that, when the Portuguese left Sundiva, Father Pines betook himself to Sirapur [Siripur, Sripūr], as offering an easier road to reach Dacca, where he intended offering himself as a substitute for the Superior of the Mission, then a prisoner. He died, having spent 10 years in Pegu and on missionary journeys in Bengal. Philip de Brito Niceto, the Commander of Siriam, and Sebastian Consalves Thibão, the Lord of Sundiva, two notorious filibusters, greatly revered and loved him: but he made so little of the friendship, which they coveted, that he would hear their confession only when ordered by his Superior, and before he would attend to their sins, he made these two men carry out many things for the good of their salvation. A priest hap-pening to pass through Sripur during his illness, Fr. Pires received Extreme Unction. He told the boy attending him that he would die on the next Sunday, that they would bury him in a dark forest, and that one day a church would be built on the spot. Whether the last part of th prophecy was fulfilled, the Annual Letters of 1617 do not tell us; but they insist that the other two points came true. Fr. Emmanuel Pires had arrived at Goa in 1588.

In the Mission of Bengal [Missio Bengalensis].

Fr. Andrew Pereira, Superior; Visitor; Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. Michael de Faria, Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. James Gomes [Gomesius], Preacher.

Fr. Francis Nunes [Nonius], Preacher.

Fr. Anthony Rodriguez [Rodericus], 8 Preacher.

Fr. Benedict Rodriguez [Rodericus], Preacher.

Fr. Simon de Figueiredo, Preacher.

Fr. Francis Pinto [Pintus], Preacher.

Fr. Emmanuel de Fonseca, *Preacher*; in captivity since 6 years in the Kingdom of Pegu.

1620.

IN BENGAL [in Bengala]: 8.

Fr. Andrew Machado, Visitor.5

Fr. Michael de Faria, Superior

Fr. Francis Pinto.

Fr. Benedict Rodriguez [Roiz].

Fr. Anthony Rodriguez [Roiz].

Fr. James Gomes.

Fr. Simon de Figueyredo.

Bro. Anthony Rodriguez [Roiz].

1623.

IN THE COLLEGE OF HUGLI [Collegium Ogulense] AND ONE RESIDENCE, there are 4.

Fr. Peter Gomes, 6 Rector of the College; Prof. of 4 v. Fr. Anthony Rodriguez [Rodericus], Consultor; Admonitor;

Prof. of 4 v.

^{1 &}quot;P. Michael de Faria, Lus." came to India in 1605 (Franco).
2 "P. Franciscus Nunes, Lus." came to India in 1611 (Franco).

⁸ One "P. Antonius Rodriguez, Lus." came to India in 1581; another similarly described in 1588; ditto in 1611 (Franco).

^{4 &}quot;Simon de Figuciredo, Lus." came to India in 1614 (Franco).

5 One "P. Andreus Machado, Lus." came to India in 1614 (Franco).

5 One "P. Petrus Gomes, Lus." came to India in 1607 (Franco).

On Jan. 1, 1623, died at Hughi Fr. Peter Gomez, Rector of the House. He was born at Onadia (Diocese of Coimbra), had taught Latin and Rhetoric and came to India probably in 1607. Fr. Alexander de Rhodes writes of him: "He who was Rector of our College of Malaca, while I was there [Aug. 1622], was called Fr. Diego Rebello, a person of high virtue; and Fr. Peter Gomez, on his departure for Bengala, bidding him farewell and embracing him, said: 'I leave you now, my good Father, to go where my superiors send me; but, I know that within a few months we shall both find ourselves on a pretty road where we shall meet and enjoy great consolation.' The prophecy was fulfilled. hey died on the first day of the year 1623, the one at Malacca, the

Fr. Simon de Figueiredo, Theologian.

Fr. Benedict Rodriguez [Rodericus], 1 Theologian.

1627

IN THE KINGDOM OF AVA.

Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca [a Fonseca], Preacher; Conf.; Prof. of 4 v.

These last 13 years he has been in captivity [concaptivus]

in the Kingdom of Ava.

IN BENGAL [Bengala].

Fr. Anthony Rodriguez [Rodericus], Super.; Preacher; Conf.; Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. Gonsalvus [Gondisalus] Paes, Preacher; Conf.; Prof.

Fr. Simon de Figueiredo [a Figueiredo], Preacher; Conf.:

Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. Aloysius Orlandini [Orlandinus], Preacher; Conf.; Prof. of 4 v.

SENT TO CATHAY [in Catayum].

Fr. Stephen [Estephanus] Cacella, Super.; Conf.; Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. John Cabral, Preacher; Cont.

Bro. Bartholomew Fontebona, Formed [Coadjutor]; Painter.

other at Bengala.' (Cf. A. DE RHODES, S.J., Voyages et Missions du P. A. de Rh., Paris, Julien, 1854, p. 51).
'The Annual Letters of Cochin (Dec. 5, 1627) tell us that Fr. Gomez'

body was found incorrupt on June 8, 1626, while the Fathers proceeded to disinter it in order to deposit it in a place where the faithful, who greatly revered his memory, might more easily satisfy their devotion.

1 Father Benedict Rodrigues died in 1626. Though only 39 years old

at the time of his death, he was a man of singular holiness of life. He was commonly called "the saint," and many instances of his prophetic insight are on record. Many minute particulars of the fall of Hugli (1632) had been foretold by him, and, as Father John Cabral, S.J., an eye-witness of the catastrophe, points out, they came true to the letter. One year before his death, while preaching before the Sodality of the Bl. Virgin, Father Benedict suddenly interrupted his discourse, and asked to count those present, beginning with himself. This done, he declared openly and plainly that, within a year, 15 of them, himself among the number, would be dead. The prediction was fulfilled. Fourteen of the Sodalists died the same year, Fr. Benedict closing the

number. He had been 20 years a Jesuit.

2 "P. Ludov. Orlandino, Lus." came to India in 1623. (Franco).

3 "Stephanus Cacella, Lus." came to India in 1614. (Franco). accompanied Father John Cabral to Thibet in 1627 and died in Guge. Western Thibet, in 1629 or 1630.

4 "P. Joannes Cabral, Lus." came to India in 1624. (Franco). Cf. SOMMER VOGEL.

⁵ Barth. Fontebona [Fonteboa, de Fuente buena] came to India in 1602, a temporal coadjutor. (Franco and de Camara Manoel.)

In the College of Bengal in the town of Ogolim [Húglí] WITH TWO RESIDENCES.

Fr. Anthony Rodriguez, Rector; Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. Simon de Figueiredo, Prof. of 4 v. Fr. Gonsalvus [Gondisalus] Paes, Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. Louis [Ludovicus] Orlandini [..us], Preacher and Contessor.

IN THE MISSION OF CATHAY [Catay], IN THE KINGDOM OF BHUTAN [in regno Potentis].

Fr. Stephen Cacella, Super.; Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. Emmanuel Dias, Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. John Cabral, Preacher and Conf.

IN THE KINGDOM OF AVA.

Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca [a Fonseca], Proj. of 4 v.; in captivity.

34. Fr. Anthony Rodriguez [Rodericus]: a Portuguese; from Lisbon; mediocre strength; aged 40; 26 years of Society; Prof. of 4 v.; after his Philosophy, he completed his Theology; was Minister at Malacca 2 years; at Cranganore 1 year; has laboured 11 years in the Missions [in conversione].

9. Fr. Gonsalves Paes: from Ormuz, in the Diocese of Goa; good health; aged 44; 29 years of Society; after his Philosophy, he studied Theology 4 years; taught Grammar 3 years; taught cases of conscience over 1 year; Prof. of 4 v.

68. Fr. Simon de Figueiredo: a Portuguese; of the Diocese of Coimbra; robust; aged 38; 22 years of Society; after his Philosophy, he studied Theology 3 years; has spent 11 years in the work of conversion; Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca; these 15 years in

captivity in Pegu; Prof of 4 v.

107. Fr. Stephen [Estephanus] Cacella: from the town of Avis, in the Diocese of Evora; health good [integris viribus]; aged 43; 24 years of Society; studied Theology 3 years; taught it 3 years; for nearly 1 year Minister in the College of Cochin: Master of Novices during nearly 2 years; Prof. of 4 v.

108. Fr. Emmanuel Dias: from the town of Alpanham, in the Diocese of Portalegro; health good [integris viribus]; aged 39; 21 years of Society; completed, studied, taught

¹ In 1632 he is said to have been one year Rector of Bengala; but, that year he was Rector of Negapatam and a Professed of 4 vows.

Philosophy 3 years; Theology 2 years; was during 1 year Minister (Collectorum); during nearly 3 years Rector of the College of San Thomé [Meliapur]; worked as a Missionary [in conversione] another 3 years; Prof. of 4 v.¹

166. Fr. Louis Orlandini: from the Diocese of Sarzana; . . .; health weak; aged 33; 11 years of Society; completed his studies in 3 years; labours as a Missionary [in con-

versione]: Preacher and Confessor.

181. Fr. John Cabral: from the town of Cerolico, in the Diocese of Guarda; health good; aged 29; 13 years of Society; completed his studies; has been for 2 years in the Mission of Bhutan [in Missione Potentis]; Preacher and Confessor.

1632.

110. Fr. Anthony Rodriguez [Roiz]: has now been Rector of Bengala during several years; knows Bengálí [callet linguam Bengalicam].

4. Fr. Simon de Figueiredo: knows Hindústání

[callet linguam Indostanam].

80. Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca: has been kept in

captivity in the Kingdom of Pegu 18 years.

65. Fr. Anthony Farinha: from the town of Golegam, in the Diocese of Lisbon; health good [integris viribus]; aged 30; 16 years of Society; completed his studies of Philosophy and Theology; labours in the work of conversion.

34. Fr. Ignatius Fialho: from the town of Onrique, in the Diocese of Evora; health good; aged 31; 18 years of Society;

completed his studies of Philosophy and Theology.2

66. Fr. John Cabral: is now for 6 years in the Mission of the Kingdom of Bhutan [in Missione Regni Potentis.]*

1634.

IN THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL [Bengala].

Fr. Anthony Rodriguez [Roiz], Rector; Prof. of 4 v. Fr. Anthony Farinha, Preacher.

² Father Fialho was killed down the Hugli River, while running the

blockade (1632).

¹ Dias (Dias) Emmanuel: nephew of another Jesuit of the same name; born at Aspalham or Alpalhão in 1592; entered in 1608; left for India in 1614; taught Philosophy and Theology at Cochin; Rector S. Thomé (1627-28); went to Cathay, 1628; died in the "kingdom" of Morange, the Nepal Tarai apparently, Nov. 13, 1629 (Litt. Ann. 1632.) Of. SOMMERVOGEL, Vols. III and IX, Cols. 212 and 1763.

⁸ The list compiled under 1632 is mere guess-work, as nothing in the Catalogue shows the place of residence of the Fathers. Further, the numbers do not follow in order. [L.B., S.J.] Father Cabral was back in Hugli in 1632, and wrote an account of the fall of that place.

IN THE KINGDOM OF AVA.

Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca [da Foncequa], Prof. of 4 v.; 1 Preacher; in captivity.

1639.

11. Fr. Anthony Rodrigues, junior : . . . health good; aged 54; 35 of Society; ... was several years Rector in Bengal, where he is now Superior; knows Bengali:

44. Fr. Anthony Farinha: ... aged 37; 23 years of Society; . . . he is now kept in bondage in Bengal by our enemies, the Moors, and though he was not cast in bonds for religion's sake, yet, he has been more than once threatened with death, and would have been set free before this, if he had renounced our holy faith.

29. Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca: ... now for 25 years

detained in captivity in the Kingdom of Pegu.

1644.

Fr. Francis de Silveira: from Barcellos, in the Diocese of Braga; health good; aged 30; 11 years of Society; studied Philosophy 3 years; Theology 2 years; labours now in the Mission of Bengal. Fr. Anthony Soares: of Porto; good health; aged 28; 5 of

Society; completed his studies; at present in the Mission of

Bengal.

Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca: already 30 years in captivity in the Kingdom of Pegu.

Fr. Anthony Farinha: ... was visitor of the Bengal

Mission, in which he now lives.

Fr. Melchior Garsao: from Cuba, in the Diocese of Evora; mediocre strength; aged 41; 26 of Society; after his studies, he taught Grammar 1 year; was Vice-Rector of the College of San Thome 6 months; employed as a Missionary [in conversione] 7 years; now chosen Visitor and Superior of the Bengal Mission.

Fr. Emmanuel Madeira: aged 40; 20 of Society; was Superior of the Bengal Mission 4 years; Prof. of 4 v.

Fr. Anthony Rodrigues, junior: (as in the Catal. of 1639).

Fr. Denis Antunes: from Lisbon; robust; aged 46; 22 of Society; after studying Philosophy, taught Grammar 1 year; studied Theology 2 years; employed in the work of conversion 11 years: is now in the Mission of Pegu.2

¹ He is always said to be a Professed of 4 vows; in reality, he was not, for want of a Father to receive his last vows. He made them later, when Fr. Denis Antunes went to take his place, and as he refused to leave the Christians of Ava, they were both captives. [L.B., S.J.] 2 In 1648, it is not said whether he has left or not. [L.B.]

29. Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca.... good health; aged 68; 51 of Society; already 34 years a prisoner in the Kingdom of Pegu.

47. Fr. Melchior [Belchior] Garçao: was commissioned by Fr. Provincial to visit the College of Bengal; and

now he is Rector of the same College; Prof. of 4 v.

11. Fr. Anthony Rodrigues, junior: was during some years Rector of Bengala, where he now resides.

Deceased.

Fr. Anthony Farinha: † at Bengala [Bengalae], March 1645.

Fr. Anthony Soares: † at Bengala, 22 August 1646.

Fr. Ambrose Correa, senior: † at Bengala, 1648; aged 38; 19 of Society.²

1652.

Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca: ... aged 72; 55 of Society; already 39 years in captivity in the Kingdom of Ava; twice appointed Provincial of this Province, but the choice did not take effect because of his absence.

1655.

IN THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

Fr. Anthony Pacheco [Paciecus], Rector.

Fr. Didacus de Oliveira.8

Fr. Roderic [Roderisius] Gomes, Visitor.

IN THE RESIDENCE OF PEGU.

Fr. Simon Rodrigues.

[The name of Fr. Emmanuel da Fonseca is not to be found].

1659.

22. Fr. Roderic Gomes: of Cochin, in this India; health good; aged 44; 26 of Society; completed his studies; laboured for some years as a Missionary; taught Grammar 2 years; was Rector of the College of Bengal.

20. Fr. Simon Rodrigues [Roiz]: from Batalha, in the Diocese of Leiria [Liriensis]; good health; aged 47; 23 of

In 1652 we find him in the College of Cochin [L. B.]

² One ". P. Ambrosius Correa, Lus." came to India in 1630 (Franco).

8 One "Didacus de Oliveira, Lus." came to India in 1614 (Franco).

Society; has been working many years for the conversion of Pegu.

1664.

IN THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL, IN THE RESIDENCE OF CHANDECAN [Chandecanensi].

• Two Fathers: Preachers and Conjessors.

Finances.

Expenses for the year 1666-

Sent to the Fathers of Bengal, considering that the College has not the wherewithal to provide for them:

Pardãos: 0037: 4: 10

Expenses for the year 1667-

Given for the passage of Fr. Manoel Gonsalves, when he went to Bengal:

0085: 4: 04

Expenses for the year 1668-

Sent to the Fathers of Bengal for their support, at the time that Fr. Manoel Gonsalves was Rector:

0052:3:4

Expenses for the year 1670—

Sent to the Fathers of Bengal for their support:

0081:3:00

1671.

IN THE MISSION OF BENGAL.

Fr. Emmanuel Gonsalves.

Fr. Anthony de [a] Figueiredo.

Fr. John de [a] Magalhaës.

1673.

Fr. John de Mayalhaës: a Portuguese; from Porto; not yet professed; aged 38; 21 years of Society; now Rector of the College of Bengal; robust health. [In 1677, he appears as Procurator at Goa.]

• Fr. Anthony de Figueiredo.

^{1 &}quot;The principall and commonest money is called *Pardaus Xeraphijns*, and is silver, but very brasse (read 'base'), and is coyned in Goa. They have Saint' Sebastian on the one side, and three or four arrowes in a bundle on the other side, which is as much as three Testones, or three hundred *Reijs* Portingall money, and riseth and fallet little lesse or more, according to the exchange." [Van Linschoten, Ch. 35. circa 1596.] Yule in his erudite article on the values of the Pardão estimates it as worth 4s. 2d. to 4s. 6d. at the end of the XVIth century. Cf. Hobson-Jobson, 1886, p. 840.

Fr. Benedict da [de] Costa: from Ceylon; of Portuguese parentage; aged 40; 21 of Society; not yet professed; at the end of his studies he was applied to the Madura Mission, and laboured some years in that Mission in the condition of a Brahman [Sanyasi]; was next occupied for a short time in the Missions of the Travancore Coast and the Fishery Coast; finally, was sent to the College of Bengal; there he lost the use of his reason; but, remedies are at present applied.1

Fr. Emmanuel Gonsalves was Rector of the College of Bengal; he is now again Rector of the same College; weak

in health and sometimes ill.

Fr. Anthony de Figueiredo: from Negapatam; formed spiritual coadjutor; aged 70; 50 years of Society; was twice Rector of the College of Negapatam; then Rector of the College of San Thomé; finally Rector of the College of Bengal, in which he was once before and is now again acting as Visitor.

Finances (1677).

In this College there live three Fathers of the Society of Jesus: a Rector and two companions; all priests. The Rector and one companion are supported by the revenues of a certain property [praedii] liberally granted by the Prince of that Kingdom for such purpose; the third is maintained by the revenues of Betti.2

1 Cf. Catal. Miss. Madur. Trichinopoly: 1910, Appendix, p. 43, (1673) and (1677).

The coconut-garden of Betim the great (o grande), in the village of Pilerne, in which was the casa of the Catechumens, from the year 1762, with its hill and annexes; 1,400 xs.: 100 t.: 00 b. [yearly revenue.]

"That coconut-garden belonged to the Mission of Manduerem [Madura] in Malabar, and was bought by an order of the Viceroy Count da Ega, of September 11, 1762, for lodging and maintaining the Catechumens and those charged with their casa, which a Royal Letter of April 9, 1704, ordered to be kept, in order that the Catechumens should not be educated out of it.

"The casa of the Catechumens, situated in Betim, in the village of Pilerne, on the right bank of the Mandovi river [Goa], is a small building with nothing remarkable about it; in charge of it were the Father of the Christians, 1 Chaplain, 1 Sacristan, 1 Clerk (escripturario) and cervants." Cf. pp. 303, 304 of Annaes Maritimos e Coloniaes, Lisbon, 1843; also pp. 300, 301, 302.

This garden of Betty or Betti in the territory of Bardez (Goa) is mentioned in 1667, 1688, 1667. (Cf. Cat. Miss. Madurensis, 1910, pp. 38, 48, 52.) In 1734, it yielded 2500 Xs.; was devastated by the Mahrattas in 1740, and gave 3000 Xs. in 1743 and 1746. (Cf. Catal. Miss. Madur. 1911, pp. 72, 79, 83, 86.) The King of Portugal ought to have provided for the maintenance of the Missionaries of the Madura Mission. In reality, only 600 serafins were awarded for the upkeep of 4 Missionaries. Hence, with the permission of the Governors, Francis [?] de Mello de Castro and Anthony de Sousa Coutinho, the revenues of the palm-grove at Betty were applied

15. Fr. Didacus Leitas: a Portuguese; from the town of Alcaide; admitted in Portugal; aged 34; 18 of Society; was Rector of Bengal, where he is still; health good; last year, I let him know he might make his profession; but, whether he did, I am not yet aware.

• 48. Fr. Louis de Sylva, senior: a Portuguese; from Faro [Pharensis]; admitted in Portugal; aged 56; 39 years of Society; professed of 4 vows; was during some months Vice-Rector in Travancore, and Rector in the College of San Thome; now he

went to Bengal both as Visitor and Rector; health robust.²

Deceased.

Fr. Emmanuel de Magalhaës, Rector of the College of Bengal, departed this life in the beginning of 1685 at the same College.⁸

1688.

[Four Fathers are said to be in Bengal in 1688, but their names are missing. Cf. Catal. Miss. Madurensis, 1910, p. 47.]

From another source: Three Fathers live in this College [of Bengala]: one a Professed of 4 vows; the others not yet Professed. They live on revenues left to them; in future, when the permission will have been obtained from Rome, they will enjoy ampler resources, since Don Nicholas de Payva has recently left for the foundation of the College a sum of xerafins sufficient, according to all, for the maintenance of three persons.

1694.

37. Fr. Louis Fernandes: a Portuguese; from ...; admitted at Lisbon; aged 40; 20 years of Society; Professed of 4 yows; has been Preacher for about 10 years in the College of Bengal, where he was Vice-Rector during some months, and now he is Rector there; strong and in good health.

to the Madura Mission. A. de Sousa Coutinho was Commissioner in 1652-53; Anthony de Mello e Castro was Governor in 1662-3. Of. also on Pilerne, p. 29 of Index in Felippe Nery Xavier's Bosquejo Historico, Nova-Goa, 1852, a work containing much rare information on the village communities of the Ilhas, Salcette and Bardez. At pp. 45-55 of Pt II will be found a Portuguese treatise De Arte Palmarica by an anonymous Jesuit.

^{1 &}quot;Didacus Leitam, Lus." came to India in 1673 (Franco).
2 "Ludov. Silva, Lus." came to India in 1682 (Franco).

^{5 &}quot;Emmanuel Magalhans, Lus." came to India in 1673 (Eranco).
6 "P. Ludov. Fernandes, Lus." came to India in 1681 (Franco).

Finances.

(From the 3rd Catalogue.)

Though the College of Bengal be at a great distance, no Provincial ever neglected to send thither at the right time the necessary labourers. If, at any time, it had not sufficient revenues for the maintenance of its subjects, the Superiors did not omit maintaining them; and now, that according to the will of the founder, there ought to be in it three of ours, we must all the more endeavour that subjects be not wanting to minister to the salvation of the neighbour. But, alas! for the Provincials to send ours two by two to Bengal is the same (God allowing) as for death to summon them to the tribunal of God, either on the way, or shortly after their arrival in the College. So, last year, and shortly before, it happened that five of ours exchanged life with death, and the Province has not the men to take their place. In the College there is at present only the Rector; he is maintained, and two others will be maintained if they can be found—from the revenues of the foundation.

Deceased (1682-1694): 34.1

16. Fr. Boniface da Costa, in the College of Bengal.

17. Fr. Alphonsus Ribeyro,² do.
18. Fr. Anthony de Proença,³ do.

19. Fr. Joseph de Sylva, do. 20. A French Father, do. do.

21. Fr. Francis de Veiga,⁶ at sea during the voyage to Bengal. [He was studying Philosophy at Goa in 1685.]

22. Fr. Dominic Carvalho, at sea during the voyage to Bengal.

¹ This applies to the whole Province of Malabar or Cochin.

² "P. Alfonsus Ribeiro, Lus." came to India in 1682 (Franco).

³ Fr. Anthony de Proenza: from the town of Solodacasa; admitted in Portugal; aged 26; 11 years of Society; went to the Madura Mission last year; robust health. (Cat. of 1685, cf. Cat. Miss. Mad., 1910). "P. Antonius Proença, Lus." came to India in 1681 (Franco).

4 Fr. Joseph da Sylva: a Portuguese: from Lisbon; admitted in Portugal; aged 35; 20 of Society; Professed of 4 vows; was at first in the Madura Mission; was next sent to the Province of Goa to acteas Procurator of this our Province [of Cochin]; falling ill, he returned at once; is not yet very strong. (Cat. of 1685. Cf. Cat. Miss. Mad., 1910). One "Josephus de Silva, Lus." came to India in 1673 (Franco).

b James Duchatz: born at Sens, March 16, 1652; admitted September 2, 1668; taught Grammar 6 years, Rhetoric 2 years; left for Siam in 1687; died at Ougoul [Hugli], in Bengal, in April 1693. Some of his astronomical observations were published by Father Gouye, S.J., at Paris 1698-92. Cf. SOMMER VICTOR VICTOR IN CO. 254.

Paris, 1688-92. Of. SOMMERVOGEL, Vols. III and IX, Col. 254.
6 One P. Franc. Veiga, Lus." came to India in 1666: another

"Franciscus Veiga, Lus." in 1682 (Franco).

38. Fr. Louis Fernandes: from Scalabi.....has spent about 13 years in the College of Bengal, preaching the Word of God; was Rector there formerly during 3 years; at present he governs that College again; strength and health weak. [Born, Sept. 7, 1655; joined, Jan. 31, '74; Prof. of 4 v., Aug. 15, '91; in 1705, Super. of Travancore. Catal. 1705.]

Deceased (during this triennium).

Fr. Didacus Leitao, in Mozambique, on his voyage to Rome. He had been elected Procurator to Rome in 1692.

Finances.

Formerly, the College was not founded; now, a few years ago, a certain nobleman gave 20,000 serafins towards its foundation. In it resides the Rector, with two companions, priests, and one temporal Coadjutor Brother. Until now they were maintained by means of the revenues of the foundation which was placed out at interest. Now, there is question of buying a certain palm-grove, that they may be supported from the income thereof.

1705.

36. Fr. Frederic Zech [Zex]: a German; born, March 22, 1667; entered the Society, August 24, 1695; before entering the Society, he studied Philosophy and Theology; has laboured for 2 years in the Missions [Christianitatibus vacavit]; is now at the head of the College of Bengal; mediocre health; aged 38; 10 years of Society.

29. Fr. Nicholas Missoni: an Italian; born in January 1667; entered the Society in November 1687; not yet professed; after spending less than two years in this Province, he was sent to Goa, whence he was sent back hither; is now in the College of Bengal; in full health; aged 38; 18 years of

Society.2

Finances.

• We learn from the Rector and his companions: they are maintained from the foundation left to the College; they devote themselves to preaching and hearing confessions, as is

^{1 &}quot;P. Federcius Zech, Breilens." [Bractens. ?] came to India in 1699 (Franco). Of the Province of Upper Germany; laboured at the Fahery Coast (Ramesuram). Cf. Sommervogel, sub Czech and A. Huonder, Deutsche Jesuitenmissi näre, p. 180.

2 One "P. Nicolaus Missoni, Italus" came to India in 1699 (Franco).

customary in the other small houses of the Society; in this small College [Collegiolo] and in Ambalacot we have no cure of souls, though we undertake this charge in our other houses.

1708.

From the 4th Catalogue.

6. Fr. Frederic Zech [Czeck, elsewhere Czeth], Rector of Bengal.

Fr. Nicholas Missoni.

1711 and 1715.

[The residence of the Missionaries is not indicated.]

45. Fr. Frederic Zech; born near Bracten, March 22, 1667; entered the Society in 1695; made his profession of 4 vows at Húglí [Ugulini] in 1710; health sufficiently good; governed [sic] the College of Bengal.

[The Catalogue of 1718 states that he has been appointed

Rector of Meliapur.]

19. Fr. Nicholas Missoni: born at Friuli in January

1671; entered the Society in November 1687.

[Professed of 4 vows on November 1, 1717. Catal. of 1718.]

1715.

Catal, of the Churches of the Malabar Province.

In the Kingdom of Bengal, in the town of *Ugulim*, there is the Church of our College dedicated to Our Lady's Nativity.

1722.

Fr. Frederic Zech [Czech] . . . governed and now governs the College of Bengal.

1729.

IN THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

Fr. Peter Dias, appointed Rector in June 1726. Fr. John de Andrada, ordered to go elsewhere.

1730.

IN THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

Fr. Peter Dias, appointed Rector in June 1726.

¹ One "Petrus Dias, Lus." came to India in 1703 (Franco).
2 "Joannes Andrade, Lus." came to India in 1699 (Franco).

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1731.

IN THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

As in 1730.

Finances.

In the College there resides only the Rector. For the expenses of the College, 1,200 serafins are given from the income of the Gantacomprem estate.1

1734.

IN THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

Fr. Anthony Huetlin, sent thither quite lately to govern the College, owing to the death of the Rector, Fr. Peter Dias.

36. Fr. Anthony Huetlin: a German; born at Constance, March 6, 1700; received into the Society, October 9, 1715; was in charge of parishes on the Travancore Coast; then appointed Vice-Rector of the College of Bengal.2

Deceased.

Fr. Peter Dias, at Bengala, December 21, 1733.

Finances.

The Rector only. For the expenses of the College, 1,200 serafins are given from the income of Gantacomprem.

1737.

IN THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

Fr. Anthony Huetlin: appointed Vice-Rector in April 1734. 29. Fr. Anthony Huetlin: [the same word for word as under No. 36 of 1734; then: made his profession; is in good health.

• 1 This estate must have been in the Gos territory It yielded an-

nually 004300 xerafins, more or less. In 1740, the Mahrattas had taken possession of it. Cf. Catal. Miss. Mad., 1911, pp. 73, 74, 79.

² Huetlin Anthowy; born at Constance, on March 6, 170); received into the Society on October 9, 1715; professed Grammar and Humaniora; embarked in 1730 for the Mission of Malabar, where he laboured 12. years. He returned to Germany about 1740 to collect alms for the Missions; but remained in Germany, teaching Moral Theology and Canon Law at Amberg, Munich and Trent, and died while Prefect of Studies at Landshut, March 31, 1761. Cf. Sommervogel and A. Huonper, S.J., op. cit., p. 176.

Finances.

Only the Rector. 1,200 Xerafins from the income of Gantacomprem.

1740.

- 17. Fr. George Deiterman [sic]: born at Munster, May 11, 1692; entered the Society on June 7, 1710; strength shattered; laboured in Missions in Germany; now Rector of the College of Bengal since June 20, 1738; made his profession on August 15, 1725.1
- 27. Fr. Anthony Huetlin: ... is now assisting in the district of Tala on the Fishery Coast; professed on October 18, 1735.

1742.

THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

Since the death of Fr. George Deisterman [sic], of happy memory, no one else has been sent thither.

1743.

Deceased (during this triennium).

Fr. George Deiterman [sic], at Bengala, in 1740.

1752.

THE COLLEGE OF BENGAL.

No one of Ours lives in the College, for [want of subjects and for reasons exposed by the last Provincial Congregation and often represented at Rome.



We subjoin an alphabetical list of those missionaries whose names are mentioned in the above Catalogues. The years show under what dates they are found.

Andrada de, John, 1729. Antunes, Denis, 1644. Boves, Andrew, 1604. Cabral, John 1627, '28,'32. Cacella, Stephen, 1627, '28. Carvalho, Dominic, † between 1682-94 at sea. Correa, Ambrose, 1648 († Bengala, 1648).

Costa da, Benedict, 1677.

¹ Deistermann George; born on May 11, 1692, "im Münsterschen"; entered the Society on June 7, 1710 (Rhen. Inf.); accompanied Father Bischopinck to India in 1726; Superior of the Missions on the coast of Travancore; at Quilon, 1727-34; sick, 1734; consumptive at Manapad, 1737; died in 1740 in Bengal (C t.). Cf. A. Huonder, S J., Dentache Jesuitenmissionäre des 17 und 18 Jahrhunderts, Freiburg, 1899, p. 174.

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Costa da, Boniface, † between 1682-94 at the Coll. of Bengala.

Deistermann, George, 1740, '42, '43 († at Bengala, 1740).

Dias, Manoel, 1628. Dias, Peter, 1729, '30, '31, '34 († at Bengala, 21 Dec.

1733). Duchatz, James († 1693, Hug-

Faria de, Michael, 1619, '20. Farinha, Anthony, 1632, '34,

'39, '44, '48 († at Bengala, March 1645).

Fernandes, Louis, 1694, '97. Fialho, Ignatius, 1632.

Figueiredo, Anthony, 1671, **'73**, **'77**.

Figueiredo de, Simon, 1619,

⁵20, '23, '27, '28, '32. Fonseca de, Manoel, 1610, '11, '13, '19, '27, '28, '32, '34, '39, '44, '48, '52.

Bartholomew, Fontebona, Bro., 1627.

Garsão, Melchior, 1644, '48.

Gomes, James, 1619, '20.

Gomes, Peter, 1623. Gomes, Roderic, 1655, '59.

Gonsalves, Manoel, 1671, 77. Grecus, John Mary, 1610, '11, '13.

Huetlin, Anthony, 1734, '37 '40.

Leitão, Didacus, 1685, '97. († at Mozambique between 1694-97).

Machado, Andrew, 1620.

Madeira, Manoel, 1644.

Magalhães de, John, 1671, '73. Magalhães de, Manoel, 1685

Besides these 58 names found in our Catalogues, we have

met with the following 20:—

Anonymous: 1 Barbier, Claude. Capputi, Fulvius. Castro de, Joseph.

(† at the College of Bengala 1685).

Missoni, Nicholas, 1705, '18, '11, '15.

Nunes, Blasius, 1604, '10, '11, '13.

Nunes, Francis, 1619. Oliveira de, Didacus, 1655. Orlandini, Louis, 1627, '28. Pacheco, Anthony, 1655. Paes, Gonsalvus, 1627, '28. Pereira, Andrew, 1619. Pinto, Francis, 1619, '20.

Pires, Manoel, 1610, '11, '13. Proença de, Anthony († be-

tween 1682-94 at the College of Bengala).

Ribeyro, Alphonsus († between 1682-94 at the College of Bengala).

Rodriguez, Anthony, 1620.

Rodriguez, Anthony, Junior, 1619, '20, '23, '27, **'34**, **'39**, **'44**, **'48**.

Benedict, 1619, Rodriguez, '20, '23.

Rodriguez, Simon, 1655, '59. Salerno, Natalis, 1604.

Sequeira de, Balthasar, 1610. Silva de, Joseph († between 1682-94 at the College of

Bengala). Silva de, Louis, Senior, 1685. Silveira, de Francis, 1644.

Soares, Anthony, 1644, '48 († at Bengala, Aug. 22, 1646). Souza de Dominic, 1604.

Veiga de, Francis († at sea between 1682-94).

Zech, Frederic, 1705, '08, '11, '15, '22.

Coelho, Manoel. Fernandes, Francis. Ferreira, Gaspar. Fonseca, Melchior.

Gomes, Andrew.
Gomes, Ignatius.
Gomes, Paschal.
Laynez, Francis, Bishop.
Morando, Francis.
Rodrigues, John, Bro.

Santucci, Mark Anthony. Sarayva, Manoel. Schipani, Anthony Octavius. Secco, Manoel. Sequeira, Simon. • Vaz, Anthony.

A few particulars on each.

In 1576, two Jesuits came to Bengal and insisted with the Portuguese traders on their refunding to Emperor Akbar the moneys due for anchorage and annual taxes of which they had defrauded the exchequer. But through the influence of Pedro Tavares, the Captain of Hugli, then [1578] at Fathpur Sikri, all arrears were condoned. The Fathers' conscientious scruples and Pedro Tavares' petition favourably impressed the Emperor, and led eventually to the first Jesuit Mission at Fathpur Sikri in 1580. The name of only one of these Fathers in Bengal has been preserved: Father Anthony Vaz. Cf. F. DE SOUSA, S.J., Oriente Conquistado, Lisboa, 1710, Vol. II, p. 148, and D. BARTOLI, S.J., Missione al Gran Mogor, Roma, 1714, p. 8.

Francis Fernandez came to Bengal with Dominic de Sousa

in 1598, and died in prison at Chittagong, Nov. 14, 1602.

He was born in the Diocese of Toledo, Avertensis, in 1547. "Fr. Francis Hernandez. a Spaniard, came to India, in 1574, and was martyred." (Franco). da Camara Manoel mentions him as not yet a priest. Cf. P. DU JARRIC and C. SOMMER-VOGEL, S.J., Vols. VII and IX, Col. 325.

Melchior Fonseca must have arrived in Bengal in 1599, one of his letters being dated from Chandecan, Jan. 20, 1600. He died at Chandecan on Jan. 1, 1603. Born at Linhares (Portugal), in 1554; admitted in 1573; sent to India in 1595, already a priest (Franco); Minister II years; Socius to the Provincial. Cf. DU JARBIC and SOMMERVOGEL, Vols. III and IX, Col. 351, and DA CAMARA MANOEL, p. 151.

Paschal Gomez died in the island of Sundiva in or before 1615, aged 28, of which he had spent 12 in the Society of

Jesus.

Fulvius Capputi: a Neapolitan, according to Franco; perished in a shipwreck along the coast of Arrakan, on October 11, 1617. He had come to India in 1609, already a priest. (Franco). Fr. Laerzio destined him to be the companion of Fr. de Nobili, at Madura; but, the following Provincial thought otherwise.

Anthony Octavius Schipani died in 1623 in the "Gangetic Peninsula" Born at Naples about 1540; entered in 1559; Rector of Cochin in 1606. Cf. Sommervogel. He must be identified with "P. Antonius Ezquipano, Italus," who came to India in 1585 (Franco). Cf. also da Camara Manoel, p. 146.

Gaspar Ferreira, Andrew Gomez and Simon Sequeira died

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of the plague at Hugli in 1626. One "Gaspar Ferreira, Lus." came to India in 1614; one "Andrew Gomes, Lus." in 1603. (Franco).

Joseph de Castro wrote on Nov. 20, 1631, from "the Kingdom of Bengala," that he had been in Bengal during the last two years, as Chaplain to a Governor of several provinces, Mirzā Zū-l Qarnín, an Armenian Catholic. The place was more than 250 miles from Agra and more than 300 from Hugli. On August 8, 1632, he mentions Father Francis Morando as his companion. Cf. J.A.S.B., 1910, p. 529. "Joseph de Castro, Lus.," had come out in 1602; "P. Francis Morando, Lus.," in 1629. Cf. Franco and Da Camara Manoel.

Two Jesuits were among the casualties on the Hugli River after the capture of Hugli: Father Ignatius Fialho, cut down with a scimitar († 26 Sept. 1632), and Bro. John Rodriguez, shot dead with arrows.

Three others—Manoel Coelho, Manoel Secco, and Louis Orlandini—died shortly after (before the end of 1632) of the pestilence which decimated the Portuguese fugitives entrenched in the island of Saugor. Two of the name of Emmanuel Coelho, both Portuguese, and neither a priest, left Lisbon, one in 1609, the other in 1623.

Between 1678 and 1681, a movement of conversion among the ryots of Don Antonio de Rosario, son of the Rájá of Busna, had brought to Bengal Father Mark Anthony Santucci. In a letter from Naluá Cot, Jan. 3, 1683, in which he reports unfavourably on Don Antonio's motives, he mentions two other Jesuits then in Bengal: Manoel Sarayva and Ignatius Gomez. Cf. da Cunha Rivara's O Chronista da Tissuary, 1866, Goa, pp. 319, 320; also J.A.S.B., 1910, pp. 449-451, where a number of letters, now in the Brit. Mus., and dated 1678-84, are pointed out. Father Santucci had come to India in 1668, already a priest; one "Emmanuel Saraiva, a Portuguese, not yet a priest," came in 1672; one "Ignatius Gomes, ditto," in 1670, (Franco). I believe that Saraiva must be identified with Manoel Saray (read: Sarayva), Provincial at Goa in 1711. Cf. Lettres Edif., 1781, X, 99.

For Bishop Francis Laynez' visit to Bengal, the first episcopal visitation on record (1712-1715) see Fr. Cl. Barbier's letters in Bengal: Past and Present, 1910, Vol. II, pp. 200-227.

5. "Mundari Phonology and the Linguistic Survey." By Professor Sten Konow, Ph.D.

The Revd. C. Mehl has written a review of the Muṇḍārī section of the Linguistic Survey of India in this Journal, vol. vi, pp. 247 and ff., in which he asserts that the sounds of Muṇḍārī have there been wrongly described and noted. The Muṇḍā Volume of the Survey has been written by me, and as the questions raised by Mr. Mehl are of some importance, I hope that I am justified in stating the reasons which lead me to differ from him.

There are two points in which he maintains that I am wrong, viz., in stating that Muṇḍārī like Santālī possesses double sets of the vowels e and o, and that the Muṇḍārī semiconsonants are hard and not soft. If I am not mistaken the latter point, the marking of the semi-consonants as hard in the Linguistic Survey, is, in the opinion of my critic, the most serious mistake.

With regard to the sounds e and o I have said in my treatise of Mundari phonology that there are apparently two e-sounds, one which I mark e and another which I mark ä. Similarly I have distinguished two o-sounds, an o and an \hat{a} . Mr. Mehl states that the sounds \ddot{a} and \hat{a} do not exist in Mundari. Now I have not put any stress on this point. I have not distinguished the two sets in the specimens printed in the Survey. I have only tried to do so in the List of words. I think it is necessary to state this because Mr. Mehl's words cannot fail to give the impression that I have carried the distinction through in all specimens. Then I must confess that a mere dictum like Mr. Mehl's does not carry immediate convic-He has not given us a description of the sounds in question which enables us to judge. It will be necessary to go a little into detail in order to explain what is meant. Before doing so, however, I should like to say a few words in explanation of an expression I have used in the Munda Volume, and which seems to have given offence to Mr. Mehl. I refer to my remark that the materials collected for the purposes of the Linguistic Survey have not been prepared by scholars with a phonetical training. The systematic study of phonetics is of recent date and of a highly technical kind, and I do not understand how my words can be understood as reflecting any discredit on those excellent linguists to whose unselfish assistance the Linguistic Survey owes its best materials. It is a well-known fact that very few people, even among good linguists really know which sounds they use in speaking their own language

and the difficulty is still greater when we have to do with

strange tongues.

To return to the Mundārī vowels it would have been impossible in a work like the Linguistic Survey to give an exposition of the phonetic system on which the marking of the various sounds has been based. The ear is often a very unsafe guide, and the marking of vowels in phonetic books is therefore based on an analysis of the various positions of the tongue. I cannot do better than to quote Mr. Sweet in order to explain this. He says:—

As each new position of the tongue produces a new vowel, and as the positions are infinite, it follows that the number of possible vowel-sounds is infinite. It becomes necessary, therefore, to select certain definite positions as fixed points

whence to measure the intermediate positions.

The movements of the tongue may be distinguished generally as horizontal and vertical—backwards and forwards, upwards and downwards. The horizontal movements produce two well-marked classes: (1) 'back' (guttural) vowels, formed by the root; and (2) 'front' (palatal) vowels, formed by the fore part of the tongue. In the formation of back vowels, such as a in father, a in fall, the back or root of the tongue is brought into prominence partly by retraction of the whole body of the tongue, partly by pressing down the fore part of the tongue. In the formation of front vowels, such as i in it and a in man, the front of the tongue is raised towards the front of the palate, so that the main body of the tongue slopes down from the front of the mouth backwards. There is a third class of 'mixed' (gutturo-palatal) vowels such as the e in err, where the whole tongue is allowed to sink with its neutral flattened shape, in which neither back nor front articulation predominates.

The vertical movements of the tongue, which are generally accompanied by lowering and raising of the jaw, produce various degrees of 'height' or distance of the tongue from the palate. Thus in [pronouncing the i in fill] the front of the tongue is raised as high and as close to the palate as possible without causing audible friction, or buzz. In [pronouncing the e] in men, it is somewhat lowered, and in [pronouncing the a in man] it is lowered as much as possible. From among the infinite degrees of height three are selected: (1) 'high' [as in fill], (2) 'mid' [as in men], (3) 'low' [as in man]. These distinctions apply equally to back and mixed vowels, so

we have altogether nine cardinal vowel-positions:-

high back high mixed high front.

mid back mid mixed mid front.

low back low mixed low front.

¹ A Primer of Phonetics. Second edition. Oxford, 1902, pp. 13 and t.

Mr. Mehl explains the neutral a of Mundāri as the sound of a in Hindī rakhnā or of e in German aber or of a in English oral. Now the a of rakhnā is mid back; the e of aber is mid mixed, and the a of oral is mid mixed or low mixed. I do not doubt that Mr. Mehl himself knows the sound in question well enough. But it is impossible to form a clear idea of its precise character from his description, such as we could obtain from the experiments of a scholar trained in the methods and technicalities of modern phonetics. The example will, I hope, show that my words in the Mundā volume about phonetical training ought not to give offence to anybody, and I am very sorry to learn that they have done so.

The sound which I have marked e in the Linguistic Survey is mid front as the e in men and the first stage of the vowels in say and take; \ddot{a} is low front as the a in back, man or the beginning of a in care. Similarly o is mid back (with rounded lips) as the beginning of the vowel in so, sow, or the o in German Sohn, Sonne. A is low back as the o in not or the

initial vowel sound in saw, naught.

Now it is not easy to state in all cases whether a word is pronounced with an \ddot{a} or an e, an \hat{a} or an o, respectively, without a careful training of the ear. Mr. Mehl denies the existence of the two sets in Mundari. Similarly most of the missionaries among the Santals long maintained that there was only one e-sound and one o-sound, is Santālī, where we now know that each of these vowels has two sounds. I have already remarked that I have not distinguished between the two sets in the Mundari specimens printed in the Linguistic Survey, and I do not think that any practical inconvenience can arise from my mention of the two sets in the introduction. I should feel much obliged to my critic if he would let us have not a categorical statement but an exact description of the formation of the Mundari vowels, with indications of the position of the tongue in each individual case. The value of such a description would be greater still, if it gave information whether the individual vowels are narrow or wide, and so on. It would then be possible to judge about the actual sounds. Mr. Mehl's criticism does not, in this respect, add anything to our knowledge of Mundari phonology. We must remember that Mundari orthograplry has not been settled, and the fact mentioned by Mr. Mehl that an educated Munda failed to recognize Father Hoffmann's Mundari specimen as Mundari, does not prove anything but that he was accustomed to another orthography. I have myself tried to show a phonetic English text to an excellent English scholar, who did not at all think that it was English before it was read aloud.

I now turn to the second question raised by Mr. Mehl, about the character of the Mundarl semi-consonants, which he maintains are soft, while I have marked them as hard Above.

all it is necessary to know exactly what is meant with hard and soft sounds. A hard consonant is pronounced without voice, it is breathed, i.e., to quote Mr. Sweet, "the glottis is wide open and no sound is produced by the outgoing breath, except that caused by the friction of the air in the throat, mouth, etc." Soft consonants, on the other hand, are voiced, i.e., the glottis is at least so much closed that the vocal chords vibrate.

With regard to the semi-consonants we are here not concerned with the open consonants such as the nasals, liquids and s-sounds, but only with the so-called stops, gutturals, palatals, dentals and labials, and with these only as finals.

Like other consonants the stops 'consist acoustically of three elements, the consonant itself, and its on- and off-glide.' Glides are 'transitional sounds, produced during the transition from one sound to another.' 'The on-glide after a vowel is generally voiced.' The off-glide is always voiceless after voiceless stops. In the case of g, j, d, b we may, according to Mr. Sweet, distinguish three different kinds: (1) voiceless stop and voice-glide as in go, when no vowel precedes; (2) voice-stop and voiceless glide as in egg; (3) voice-stop and voice-glide, as in eager. It will be seen that many 'soft' consonants are actually voiceless, i.e., hard, if we do not consider the off-glide. Final stops are, more especially, very often voiceless. According to Mr. Sweet, English and Swedish are the only Teutonic languages which possess voiced (i.e., soft) final stops. Most people would, I think, protest against this statement, because the impression made on an untrained ear is different. Similarly the French and South German k, t, p will strike an Englishman as g, d, b, respectively.

Now I turn to Mr. Mehl's explanation of the formation of

the Mundari semi-consonants. He says:—

'The process of pronouncing a consonant may be divided into two parts, (1) the putting into position the organs with which it is pronounced, and (2) the relaxing these organs and causing the air from the lungs to strike against them. Now the difference between the consonants, whether they are to be soft, hard, or aspirate, is caused solely by the second part of this process and depends on the more or less abrupt relaxation of the respective organs and on the measure of force with which the air is made to pass over them. For instance, in pronouncing labials, the lips have first to be closed. This being done, I can pronounce a p, or b, or ph, or bh, as I like. Now the semi-consonants in Mundari consist only of the sound produced by the first part of the process described . . . They, therefore, naturally cannot be hard, but must be neutral. A neutral sound, however, stands, I think, nearer to a soft than to a hard sound.'

I confess that I absolutely fail to understand this. If the difference between 'hard' and 'soft' rests with the final part of the consonant, i.e., with what phonetic scholars call the off-glide, and this off-glide is missing, the vocal chords cannot vibrate. The consonant cannot accordingly be voiced, or, to use the popular expression, 'soft.' It must consequently be voiceless, or, popularly, 'hard.' Mr. Mehl's definition of the semi-consonants is therefore to the effect that they are, as I have marked them, 'hard' sounds. The term voiceless is a negative term, and such sounds as are devoid of voice, must necessarily fall under it. To call them neutral is simply to abstract from phonetic, physiological considerations and to refer the question to that most unreliable judge, the human ear.

6. "Inscribed Guns from Assam." By Rakhal Das Banerji, M.A.

In a previous paper I have dealt with two Inscribed Guns from Assam, which are now in the possession of Mr. W. Simson of London. Mr. Gait in his history has mentioned several guns, which the Ahom Kings captured from the Mughals of Gauhāṭi and Ghorāghāṭ.¹ Various other travellers have, from time to time, noticed the existence of inscribed guns in various parts of the now depopulated province of Assam. The present paper deals with seven inscribed guns, of which four are, at present, in Assam, two in the house of a Zemindar in Bhagalpur, and one in the Industrial Section of the Indian Museum.

In January last I paid a visit to Gauripur in the Goalpārā district of Assam. In the courtyard of the palace of the Hon'ble Rājā Prabhāt Chandra Baruā I found six iron guns four only of which were inscribed. The Rājā is descended from a Bengali Kāyastha, who was appointed Qānungo by the Mughal Emperor Jahāngīr. Most probably, he accompanied Islām Khān Fathpurī or Shaikh Qāsim. According to the Padishahnama, Sayyid 'Abu Bakr, the governor of Hājo under Qāsim, attacked the Ahom kingdom. The Rājā possesses numerous Persian documents among which are to be found a number of Sanads and Farmans issued in the name of the Mughal Emperors from Jahāngīr downwards, conferring the Qānungoship of different villages on the family.

The oldest gun hitherto discovered in the province of Assam is in the possession of the Rājā of Gauripur. It is an exact replica of the gun described by Mr. Stapleton of the Indian Educational Service. A monster field gun in the grounds of the Gauripur palace stands next in order. Next to it comes the gun in the grounds of the Jhāwā Kothi, the palatial residence of Bābu Saurendra Mohan Singha of Bhagalpur. The gun in the Industrial Section of the Indian Museum was taken from the Mughals in the time of Gadādhara Simha of Assam. One of the guns, in the grounds of the Gauripur palace, bears a short Persian inscription, which cannot be correctly made out on account of the absence of all diacritical marks. This one and another gun in the grounds of Bābu Saurendra Mohan Singha come last of all. The gun in the

¹ Gait's History of Assam, p. 534.

² Ibid., p. 105. S Ante, vol. v, p.

Industrial Section of the Indian Museum is of brass, the rest of the guns dealt with in this paper being made of iron. I have heard that there are several inscribed guns in the civil headquarters at Sibsagar, and at Gauripur. I learnt that the Zemindars of Bijni possess several inscribed guns. In a future paper I hope to deal with the guns at Bijni and Sibsagar.

(1) Gun of Sher Shah.—I have already mentioned that one of the guns in the Gauripur collection bears a striking pesemblance to the gun of Sher Shah recently discovered in the village of Dewanbhog, subdivision Nārāyanganj, of Dacca, and described by Mr. Stapleton in a previous issue of this Journal. The inscription on this gun is very faint and can be made out with great difficulty. Some portions of it have entirely peeled off. Had it not been for Mr. Stapleton's gun, I would never have succeeded in deciphering the whole of the inscription. The Gauripur gun differs from that of Nārāyanganj in one respect only. The long projection behind the breach noticeable in Mr. Stapleton's photograph is absent in the Gauripur gun, but I believe this portion was broken off by some accident. This projection demonstrates that both were naval guns (Nāwwārā top). Small guns of various sizes were employed by the subahdars or naibs stationed in Dacca in the flotilla of boats.

The inscription runs as follows:—

The gun measures $4'-9\frac{1}{2}''$ in length and the diameter of the muzzle is 4''.

(2) Inscribed Field Piece.—This gun also is of iron and measures 3'-9" in length, while the diameter of the muzzle is $4\frac{1}{2}$ ". The inscription consists of four or five lines in very bad Shikast. I failed to make out anything of this inscription with the exception of a portion of it where it says that the piece was cast in the 21st year of the reign of a certain emperor. The inscription is also very faint and I could not get either a satisfactory impression or a rubbing of it. If it can be read by anybody it might possibly be of great interest, as in the case of other guns described by Mr. Stapleton, one of which has preserved the name of a long-forgotten governor of Bengal.

(3) Inscribed Field Piece of Raghudeva of Cooch Behar.— Whoever has studied the rise of Kochs of Northern-Bengal, has been struck with the extraordinary development of their power within a very short period, at a time when the Afghan power was crumbling away in Bengal and the Mughal empire gradually extending its boundaries towards the East. Mr.

Gait has done ample justice to the subject in his History of Assam and in a paper in the Journal of this Society.¹ Raghudeva was the grandson of Visvasimha, the founder of the Koch Kingdom, and the son of Sukladhvaja, the renowned Koch General who gained the surname of "Cilarai,"² the "Kite King," on account of his fleetness of manœuvre of troops. During the first part of his life he was the heir-apparent to the Koch Kingdom, but, subsequently, on the birth of a son to his uncle Naranārāyaṇa or Malladeva, he revolted and was only appeased by the division of the Koch Kingdom. According to the vamsāvalī of the Darrang Rajas, Raghudeva was given the portion of Naranānāyaṇa's kingdom that lay East of the Sankosh river. On Naranārāyaṇa's death his nephew threw off the allegiance and declared himself independent. The Society possess one coin of this Prince dated saka 1510.

Obverse.

(1) Sr_7 - Sr_7 (2) $Raghudeva~N\bar{a}$ - (3) $r\bar{a}yana~bh\bar{u}p\bar{a}$ - (4) $lasya~s\bar{a}ke$ (5) 1510.

Reverse.

(1) Sri-Sri (2) Haragaurī- (3) caraṇa- kama- (4) la-madhuka (5) rasya.

According to an inscription in the temple of Madhava at Hajo

he is said to have repaired that temple in the year 1583.

The Hon'ble Rājā Bahādur of Gauripur possesses two guns of Raghudeva. The larger one is in a good state of preservation. The muzzle is shaped as a tiger's head and the portion behind the trunnions is decorated with parallel ribs of iron. Close to the breach is a vertical projection with a parrot on each side of it: see pl. There is a parrot on the lion's head also. The length of the gun is 7'-4" and the diameter of the muzzle 11". The inser ption runs as tollows:—

Srī-Srī-Raghudeva-nārāyanasya-sa[ka] sam 1514; i.e., 1592.

(4) Inscribed Field Piece of Raghudeva.—This gun is of moderate proportions, the barrel being dodecagonal in shape. It measures 4'-6½" in length and the diameter of the muzzle is 5½", but the inscription on this gun is of great importance, as it proves beyond doubt that Raghudeva did not die in 1593 A.D., as supposed by the chronicler of the Darrang Rajas. The inscription runs as follows:—

Srī-Srī-Raghudevanārāyaṇa-kāritam-idam-saka 1519; i.e., 1597 A.D:

1 J.A S.B., Part I, 1893, p. 268.

<sup>Silarai in Bengali becomes Cilarai, as Ca is invariably pronounced in Assam as Sa
8 Gait's History of Assam, p. 60.</sup>

This proves beyond doubt that Raghudeva was alive in that year, and the proof is based upon a contemporary record and not upon a modern manuscript. Babu Dwijesh Chandra Chakrabarty, Dewan of Gauripur, has kindly supplied me with notes regarding the discovery of the guns now in the possession of the Hon'ble Raja. According to him these guns were found during the time of Vira Chandra, who came to the gadi in 1808. They were found in the bed of a river called Chātāguri and their existence was made known to the Rājā in a dream.

(5) Inscribed Gun of Jayadhvajasimha.—During the last session of the Literary Conference of Bengal I had the opportunity of inspecting this gun at Bhāgalpur in the grounds of the residence of Babu Saurendra Mohon Singha. This gun bears three separate inscriptions, one of which is in Sanskrit and the remaining two in Persian. The Sanskrit inscription runs as follows:—

Srī-śrī-Svarggadeva-Jayadhvajena-Mahārājena yaba nam.
 jitvā-gubākahāṭtyām idam astram prāptam saka 1580,

i.e., 1657-58 A.D.

Javadhvajasimha is said to have attacked the Mughal dominions near Gauhati immediately after the death of Shāh Jahān I, thus following the footsteps of Prāṇaṇārāyaṇa of Cooch Behar. The Muhammadan Faujdar of Gauhati fled without waiting for the attack and twenty cannon are said to have been captured by the Ahom King.² This led to the celebrated invasion of Assam by Mīr Jumla, the Governor of Bengal. It seems that the gun was recovered by the Muhammadans under Mīr Jumla and then removed by them to Behar. They were found by the present occupant of the Jhāwā Kothi on the banks of the Ganges, close to a Muhammadan mausoleum, which from its technique can safely be assigned to the later Mughal period. This building also is included within the vast compound of the Jhāwā Kothi. The gun measures 9' 10" in length.

The larger Persian inscription has been incised on a square plate of brass rivetted on the gun. It is almost illegible and only the following words were made out with great difficulty by Prof. Jadunath Sarkar, M.A., of the Patna College: المراسعة There are no discritical marks in this inscription. He is of opinion, however, that this should be read as المراسعة and the regnal year should be referred to the reign of Shāh Jahān I, as Mir Jumla's invasion of Assam had taken place long before the twelfth year of Aurangzeb. He notes that the usual expression on similar inscriptions is Rekhta Shud,

"was cast "instead of "was manufactured."

¹ Cf. ibid., p. 62, and J.A.S.B., 1893, Part I, p. 304. ² Ibid., p. 162.

The smaller Persian inscription is incised on a tiny plate of brass rivetted near the muzzle of the gun, and is quite undecipherable. The gun is made of a thick spiral ware, similar to that already described by me in the pages of this Journal.

- (7) The Brass Gun of Gadadharasimha. This gun is at present in the Industrial Section of the Indian Museum to which it was transferred by the Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1867. They are said to have been presented by Capt. Butcher. The gun seems to be a field piece and measures 4' 51" in length. The muzzle is shaped like a lion's head and its diameter is 4½". The barrel of the gun bears two different inscriptions. one in Persian and the other in Sanskrit. The Persian inscription is a long one and consists of a main inscription and three small ones. It refers to the reign of the Mughal Emperor Jahangir. The inscription has been deciphered by Maulavi Khair-ul-Ānām of the Hare School. A complete restoration of the whole inscription he believes to be impossible. The following proper names with the exception of the reigning emperor are to be found in the inscription :- Hakim Haidar Ali, Sher Muhammad, Billardas Kārīgar, Khānzād Khān Dilawārjung. Akhwand Maulana. The third line of the main inscription contains the date of the regnal year 21 of the Emperor. The smaller inscriptions contain the following details:—the weight is four garis and the gun belongs to the detachment called Muhammadi-risālah. The officer superintending the casting of the gun was Savvid Ahmad, who was the Arazdar to the Emperor. The serial number of the gun in the Mughal artillery seems to be 619, which is given at the bottom of the inscription. Near the trunnions appear the English numeral 419 and near the breach the word "Bundoolaw" has been incised by means of a sharp instrument. The Sanskrit inscription occurs on the barrel of the gun in the space between the trunnions and the breach. It runs as follows: --
 - (1) Srī-śrī-svargga-nārāyaṇadeva-Saumāreśvara
 - (2) Gadādharasimhena-javanam jitvā Guvāka-
 - 3) hattyām-idam-astram prāptam Sāke 1604

i.e., 1596. The Muhammadans recovered Gauhati in 1679,2 and it was retaken by Gadādharasimha in 1681. Summarily the history of the gun seems to have been that it was cast in the twenty-first year of Jahāngīr and was employed most probably by the Muhammadans in one of their expeditions against Gauhāți and was left by them at that place. It was re-

¹ Above vol. v, p. 465.

² Gait's History of Assam, p. 157.

tured by Gadadharasimha in 1581 when he succeeded in re covering Gauhāti. The name "Buhdoolaw" proves beyond doubt that the Burmese Commander Mingi Mahā Bandula succeeded in capturing this gun during the civil wars in 1882-84 and that it was wrested from the Burmese before the Treaty of Yandaboo.² The Persian text runs as follows:-

در عهد سلطنت شهنشا، جهان پذاه نورالدین حهانگیر دادشاه غازی و امام صاحب جذود ملے ... خانزاد خان دلاور جنگ و بحکومت برار اخوند مولانا مرشد از حکم حکیم حیدر علی .. ملک شیر محمد بیوالر داس کاری گو نابهه ساخت سنه ۲۱

وزن چهار گری محمدی رساله ۱ ... آثار جهانگری ۱۱۳ در عمل سيد احمد موض دار شاي

"During the reign of the king of kings, the refuge of the wor'd Nur-ud-din Jahangir Khanzad Khan Dilawarjung, by the order Akhwand Maulana, the preceptor from the order of the Hakim Haidar 'Ali . . . the artisan Bir ballar das . . . was . . . the year 21 ''

POSTSCRIPTS.

Several years ago I heard from Babu Akshay Kumar Maitraya of Rajsahi that there was an inscribed gun of Muhammad Adil Shāh at Maldah. During my recent visit to that place I had the opportunity of examining the inscribed gun at English Bazar, Maldah. The gun is now lying in the grounds of the Magistrate's quarters. On examination the gun and its inscription turned out to be almost exact duplicates of Sher Shāh's gun in the Gauripur Palace Yards. The gun measures 4' 8" in length and its muzzle is shaped like a tiger's head. The inscription runs :-

در عهد بادشام عادل شير خلد الله ماكه و سلطفه . در قاريخ بهصد چهل هشت عدل سيد احمد روهي *

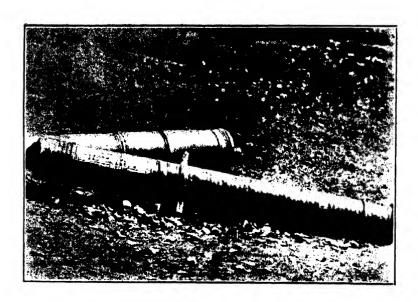
> شیر شا عادی ، کاندر جهان نام ذكويش بماند جاويدان

The only difference between this one and the Gauripur inscription is that the Maldah gun was cast a year ago, i.e., 948 H. The name of the Superintendent Sayyid Ahmad of Rum or Constantinople and the form of the inscription is the same in the gun from Dacca described by Mr. Stapleton, the Gauripur gun and the gun at Maldah.

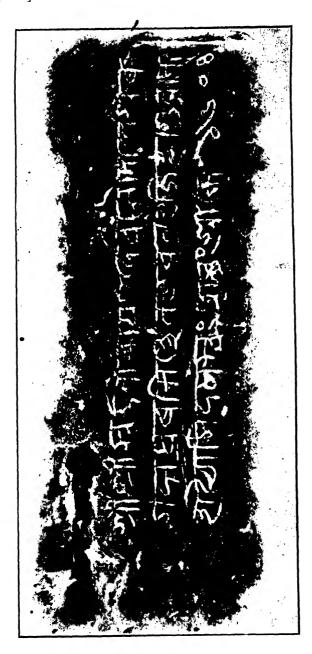
¹ Ibid., p. 226.

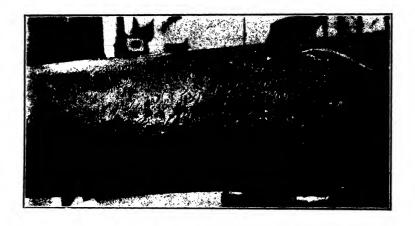






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FEBRUARY, 1911.

The Annual Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 1st February 1911, at 9-15 p.m.

His Excellency Baron Hardinge of Penshurst, P.C., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E., Patron, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Maulavi Abdul Wali, Maulavi Abdur Rahim, the Anagarika Dharmapala, Dr. N Annandale, Babu Ardhendu Kumar Ganguli, Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhapadhyaya, Dr. Birendranath Ghosh, Mr. R. C. Bonnerji, Mr. Percy Brown, Mr. J. A. Chapman, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Dr. W. A. K. Christie, Major G. P. Lenox Conyngham, Mr. D. A. Daird, Mr. B. De, Dr. C. H. Elmes, Mr. J. N. Farquhar, Dr. L. L. Fermor, Rev. Father E. Francotte, s.J., Mr. F. H. Gravely, Mr. H. G. Graves, Major W. G. Gray, Rai B. A. Gupte Bahadur, Mr. B. G. Horniman, Col. G. F. A. Harris, Mr. H. H. Hayden, Hon. Mr. Justice H. Holmwood, Mr. D. Hooper, Dr. W. C. Hossack, Rev. H. Hosten, s.J., Babu Jogindranath Vidyabhusan, Khaliluddin Ahmed, Mr. W. Kirkpatrick, Captain A. E. J. Lister, Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, Babu Monahar Lal, Babu Mrityunjoy Rai Chaudhori, Mr. P. B. Mukerjee, Hon. Mr. E. A. W. Oldham, Babu Padamraj, Mr W. W. K. Page, Babu Panchanan Ghosh, Babu Praphulla Chandra Ghosh, Babu Puran Chand Nahar, Rev. W. E. Le Quesne, Rev. A. C Ridsdale, Babu Radhakrishna, Babu Rakhaldas Banerji, Babu Ramakanta Bhattacherji, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana. Mr. M. J. Seth, Hon. Mr. Justice S. Sharfuddin, Nasarul-Mamalik Mirza Shujaat Ali Khan Bahadur, Babu Srikrishna Mahapatra, Babu S. R. Kumar, Dr. G. Thibaut, Dr. Upendranath Brahmachari, Mr. H. P. Watts, Mr. S. C. Williams, and others.

Visitors:—Maulavi Syed Ali Azam, Babu Baij Nath, Babu S. C. Baral, Mr. B. Basu, Maharajadhiraj Bahadur of Burdwan, Captain Braucker, Col. S. G. Burrard, Mr. H. Cunningham, Mr. J. N. Farquhar, Miss Graves, Babu Hem Chandra Das Gupta, Mr. J. Henderson Gray, Pandit Hita Vrata Samakantha, Major F. C. Hyan, Mr. J. I. J. Hyam, Babu Jaganmohan Chakravarti, Babu Kumar Sing Nahar, Major C. G. D. Labilitere, Mr. C. E. Lomax, Mr. A. S. Manasoch, Mr. Manilal M. Doctor,

Maulavi Mohamad Ali, Maulavi Syed Mohammad Hasan, Babu Phanindra Lal Ganguli, Babu Probodh Kumar Das, Samma Purnanand Swami, Mrs. Le Quesne, Mr. Sheobax, Babu Satyendranath Mitra, Babu Satyendranath Sen, and others.

Mr. Justice Mookerjee, the senior Vice-President, ordered the distribution of the voting papers for the election of Officers and Members of Council for 1911, and appointed Dr. L. L. Fermor and Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri to be scrutineers.

The senior Vice-President also ordered the distribution of the voting papers for the election of Fellows of the Society, and appointed Dr. L. L. Fermor and Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri to be scrutineers.

The senior Vice-President announced that no essays have been received for the Elliott Prize Competition for the year 1910.

The Senior Vice-President also announced that the Barclay Memorial Medal for the year 1911 has been offered to Dr. Karl Diener, Prof. of Palaeontology at the University of Vienna.

The Annual Report was then presented.

ANNUAL REPORT FOR 1910.

The Council of the Society has the honour to submit the following report on the state of the Society's affairs during the year ending 31st December, 1910.

Member List.

The number of Ordinary Members at the close of the year was 508. Sixty-eight Ordinary Members were elected during 1910. Of these, 9 have not yet paid their entrance fees, 1 member has resigned, and the election of 1 member was cancelled at his own request, the number of Ordinary Members, therefore, added to the list was 57. On the other hand 18 withdrew, 2 died, and 2 were struck off under Rule 40.

The following table gives the statements for the past six

years :-

Paying.			Non-paying.						
YEAR.	Resident.	Non- Resident.	Foreign.	Total.	Life.	Absent.	Special Non-Sub- scribing.	Total.	TOTAL.
1905	144	133	12	288	20	47	1	68	357
1906	173	147	15	335	20	51	: 1	72	407
1907	174	175	20	369	20	30	1	51	420
1908	181	193	17	391	19	38		57	448
1909	183	217	13	413	20	40		60	473
1910	209	217	16	442	23	43		66	508

The Ordinary Members whose deaths we lament were Babu Hanuman Prasad and Pandit Yogesa Chandra Sastri-Sankhvaratna-Vedatirtha.

There were two deaths among Honorary Members, viz., those of Mahamahopadhyaya Chandra Kanta Tarkalankara and Prof. M. Treub. Acharyya Satyavrata Samasrami, an Associate Member, has been elected to fill up one of the vacancies. The number is now 27.

The number of the Special Honorary Centenary Members remain unchanged since last year.

Among the Associate Members there has been one death, viz., Mahamahopadhyaya Sudhakara Dvivedi. Khan Bahadur Shams-ul-Ulama Maulavi Ahmad Abdul Aziz Navati. Mr. L. K. Anantha Krishna Iyer, and the Rev. H. Hosten, s.J., have been elected. The names of Prof. P. J. Brühl and Acharyva Satyavrata Samasrami have been removed from the list of Associate Members as the former has become an Ordinary Member and the latter has been elected an Honorary Member of the Society. The number now is 14.

Three members, Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, Mr. T. H. D. La Touche and Mr. R. Dhavle compounded for their subscriptions during the year.

Indian Museum.

One presentation made to the Society by the Settlement Officer of Chota Nagpur Division was transferred to the Indian Museum, namely, a Chaturmukha without inscription found in the village of Pabanpur, Pargana Barahabhum, District Manbhum.

Owing to the introduction of the Indian Museum Act X

of 1910 the representatives under the Indian Museum Act IV of 1887 have lost their seats. In accordance with Act X of 1910 the Society is empowered to elect one representative, and the Council has nominated the Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, C.S.I., D.Sc., F.R.A.S., F.R. $_{\gamma}$ S.E., to be a member of the Board of the Trustees of the Indian Museum on behalf of the Society.

Finance.

The accounts of the Society are shown in the Appendix under the usual heads. Statement No. 12 contains the Balance Sheet of the Society and of the different funds administered through it.

The credit balance of the Society at the close of the year was Rs. 1,82,930-2-8, against Rs. 1,93,522-13-3 at the close of

the preceding year.

The Budget for 1910 was estimated at the following figures: Receipts Rs. 30,697. Expenditure Rs. 31,243. (Ordinary Expenditure Rs. 28,443, and Extraordinary Expenditure Rs. 2,800.) The Budget estimate of receipts excludes Admis-

sion fees and Compound Subscriptions.

The actual receipts for the year, exclusive of Admission fees and three Compound Subscriptions, have amounted to Rs. 32,243-14-2, or about Rs. 1,550 in excess of the estimate. The sum of Rs. 1,888 has been received as Admission fees, and the sum of Rs. 500 as Compound Subscriptions; and the sum of Rs. 2,400 has been credited to the Permanent Reserve Fund. which now stands at Rs. 1,60,400. The receipts have exceeded the estimate under the heads of "Members' Subscriptions," and "Interest on Investments," by Rs. 1,958 and Rs. 104 respectively. "Misc llaneous" has increased by Rs. 275 owing to the collection of Rs. 250 from Mr. Harinath De on behalf of Mr. Otto Harrassowitz. The receipts have fallen short of the estimate under the following heads: "Subscription for Society's "Journal and Proceedings and Memoirs" and "Sale of Publications." The total receipts for the year have been Rs. 34,631-14-2.

In the Budget the Ordinary Expenditure was estimated at Rs. 28,443, the expenditure to be incurred under twenty-two heads. Under these heads the expenditure has amounted to Rs. 31,076-1-5, or Rs. 2,633-1-5 in excess of the estimate. The expenditure has exceeded the estimate under the heads of "Commission," "Stationery," "Light and Fans," "Postages," "Contingencies," "Binding," "Journal and Proceedings and Memoirs" and "Tibetan Catalogue." "Commission" has been higher owing to the collection of subscriptions in arrear, as well as to the increase in number of new members. "Stationery" has been increased owing to purchase of stencil papers, ink, etc., for the use of Medical Section. "Light and Fans" has been higher for changing the coils of one of the Fans.

"Postages" have increased for despatching the publications of 1909 issued in 1910. 'Contingencies' are higher on account of the cost of a new memorial tablet for the tomb of Alexander Csoma de Körös, and also on account of the fact that the sum of Rs. 250 has been realized from Mr Harinath De, on behalf of Mr. Otto Harrassowitz, Leipzig. "Binding," "Journal and Proceedings and Memoirs" and "Tibetan Catalogue" have increased owing to additional work done during the year. In no other case has there been any very considerable expenditure in excess of the estimate.

The extraordinary expenditure was estimated at Rs. 2,800, the expenditure to be incurred under the heads of "Journal and Proceedings and Memoirs," Rs. 1,300, and "Books" (for the purchase of standard works for Medical Reference Library) Rs 1,427-12-7. Total Rs. 2,727-12-7, or Rs. 72-3-5 less than

the estimate.

During the year the Council sanctioned the following items of expenditures: "Loan" Rs. 4,710, advanced to the Arabic and Persian MSS. Fund for the purchase of Manuscripts. "Tax" (unfiltered water) Rs. 80, due to the Corporation from March 1907 to June 1910 owing to non-receipt of bills. "Purchase of Manuscripts 'Rs. 2,250, on account of some rare and valuable manuscripts acquired for the Library. "Gratuity" Rs. 48, to Sew Narain Peon on his retirement. Rs. 9,815-12-7. The total expenditure has amounted to Rs. 40.891-14, or Rs. 9.648-14 in excess of the estimate

The total income, it has been shown, amounted to Rs. 34,631-14-12, and expenditure to Rs. 40,891-14. The financial position is, therefore, somewhat lower than at the close of the preceding year; but the sum of Rs. 4,710 has been advanced as a loan to the Arabic and Persian MSS. Fund, which will be realized by three yearly instalments as detailed below:-

In the year			Rs. 2,710
		• •	,, 1,000
Do.	1913	• •	,, 1,000

Total Rs. 4,710

The following sums were held at the close of the year on account of the different funds administered by the Society:

Oriental Public	ation Fund	l No.	Rs.	6,229	3	
Do.	Do.	No.		8,081	3	
- Do.	Do.	No.		1,854	13	
Sanskrit Manuscripts Fund				1,952	6	
Arabic and Per	sian MSS.	Fund		1,567	0	
Bardie Chroniel	les MSS. F	und		1,716	2	6

***		•		e	
Less the sum of		ght forward 2 advanced to the tors, O. P.	e Edi-	21,400	12 6
		No. 1.	_		
Do.	,, 20	Do. Officer in	charge		
		Sans. MSS.			
Do	4.710	Do. A. and I	P. MSS		
-	,, -,	Fund.		•	'
Do.	1.000	Do. Mahamo	hapadh	-	
	,, .,,.,	yaya Hara			
		Shastri,			
		Bardic Ch	ironicle	S	
		Fund.			
		- 3.144			

Total Rs. 6,562

6,562 0 0

Balance Rs. 14,838 12 6

The liquid assets of the Society at the close of the year, excluding the Permanent Reserve Fund and deducting Rs. 14,838-12-6 belonging to the funds administered by the Society, amounted to Rs. 25,195-6-9 The bulk of this sum is invested in Government paper as a Temporary Reserve Fund.

The Permanent Reserve Fund at the close of the year Rs. 1,69,400, and the Temporary Reserve Fund at the close of the year Rs. 36,900, against Rs. 1,59,400, and Rs. 44,300, respectively, of the previous year. The Trust Fund at the close of the year was Rs. 1,400.

The Budget estimate of Receipts and Expenditure for 1911 has been calculated at: —

Rs.
Receipts . 72,607
Expenditure 28,358

The Budget estimate of Receipts is about Rs. 37,975, more than the actual of 1910. This is due to an Imperial grant of Rs. 40,000 from the Government of India towards the expenses of constructing the Society's Building and the interest which will accumulate thereon till the money is disbursed.

The Budget estimate of Expenditure is about Rs. 12,535, less than actuals of 1910, or about Rs. 4,250 less than the estimated income of the year. Any expenditure in excess of the provision has been made over and above the sum of Rs. 4,250 will have to be met by drawing on the Temporary Reserve Fund, unless the income should prove larger than is anticipated.

The expenditure on the Royal Society's Catalogue (including subscription remitted to the Central Bureau, London), has been Rs. 4,774-13-0, while the Receipts under this head from

subscription received on behalf of the Central Bureau has been Rs. 571-2-0. A sum of Rs. 4,164-5-6 has been remitted to the Central Bureau, London. The amount of Rs. 1,536-3-7 is still to be forwarded.

Mr. D. Hooper continued Honorary Treasurer throughout the year.

BUDGET ESTIMATE FOR 1911.

Receipts.

	1910.	1910.	1911.				
	Estimate.	Actuals.	Estimat				
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.				
Members' Subscriptions	9,700	11,658	10,500				
Subscriptions for the Socie							
ty's Journal and Proceed							
ings and Memoirs	•	1,656	1,704				
Sale of Publications		1,258	2,000				
Interest on Investments	,	7,097	6,993				
Rent of Room	. 600	600	600				
Government Allowances	-,	4,000	3,000				
Do. (for Researches in His							
tory, Religion, Ethno	_						
logy, and Folklore of	-	5 000	n 200				
Bengal :		3,600	3,600				
Miscellaneous		375	100				
Loan	2,000	2,000	2,710				
Admission fees		1,888	• •				
Compound Subscriptions	••	500	• •				
Total	30,697	34,632	31,207				
Extraordina	ry Receip	ts.					
Government Allowance			40,000				
Interest on Investment			1,400				
•							
GRAND TOTAL	30,697	34,632	72,607 ———				
_							
Expenditure.							
Salaries	6,350	5,855	6,550				
Commission	550	704	600				
Pension	420	405	420				
Stationery	150	183	150				
Light and Fans	260	284	260				
Carried over	7,730	7,431	7.980				

Agencies.

40,892

28,358

GRAND TOTAL .. 31,243

Mr. Bernard Quaritch and Mr. Otto Harrossowitz continued as the Society's Agents in Europe.

The number of the copies of the Journal and Proceedings and the Memoirs sent to Mr. Quaritch during the year 1910 was 525 valued at £83-4-2, and of the Bibliotheca

Indica 385 valued at Rs. 408-14. Of these copies to the value of £52-3-10 and Rs. 149-11 have been sold.

The number of the copies of the Journal and Proceedings and the Memoirs, sent to Mr. Harrossowitz during 1910, was 268 valued at £40.18-8, and of the Bibliotheca Indica 368 valued at Rs. 332-4. The sale-proceeds have been £12-17-1 and Rs. 64-11, respectively.

Library.

The total number of volumes and parts of magazines added to the Library during the year was 6,237, of which 558 were purchased and 5,679 were either presented or received in exchange.

Parts III and IV of the Library Catalogue from the letter

R to Z have been published.

A complete copy of the Tanjur in 225 vols. has been added to the Library. Six leaves of an old pothie in Brahmi character found by Mr. V. Kara in the Takla Makan Desert were also purchased. The Society has also purchased 28 Manuscripts and Tibetan block prints and a complete set of the photographs of the sculptures at Borobodoer.

Owing to the increased number of Tibetan Manuscripts in the Society's Library, a Lama has been engaged to look

after the collection.

The Council has not approved the Catalogue of the Tibetan Xylographs and Manuscripts prepared by Rai Sarat Chandra Das Bahadur, and the manuscript has been returned to the compiler. A new Catalogue has now been prepared by Dr. E. Denison Ross with the assistance of a Lama, and the manuscript will be sent to press shortly.

In order to give facilities for reading to members of the Society, the Library is now open on every Wednesday up to

7-30 р.м.

Mr. J. H. Elliott has continued as Assistant Secretary

throughout the year.

The services of Pundit Kunja Bihari Nyayabhusana, as Pandit of the Society, have been dispensed with, and Pandit Nava Kumar Lahiri has been appointed in his place.

International Catalogue of Scientific Literature.

The Society was represented by Lieut.-Colonel D. Prain. F.R.S., and Mr. I. H. Burkill at a Convention called together in London in July by the Royal Society in order to discuss the future of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature. At the Convention it was decided to continue the Catalogue for a further period of five years under the existing arrangements. The Society's representatives gave their vote for this and conveyed, as instructed, the Society's promise to conduct the Regional Bureau for India and Ceylon, and our Indian Govern-

ment's promise to maintain the Bureau.

Many matters were discussed at the Convention and may be read of in its report; but among them was one of outstanding importance, namely, the increasing difficulty of getting together the titles of all published scientific papers because of the obscure places in which so many are published. It behoves authors who publish scientific papers in India and Ceylon to help the Regional Burean in this difficulty by sending to it copies of their papers that they may be indexed by the staff, unless they have been printed in one of the Journals named below. Those who consult the Catalogue may have noticed how greatly the size of some volumes in 1907 and 1908 increased: this was owing to the inclusion of omissa from the preceding years picked up by the Bureau as it becomes more perfectly organized.

The Regional Bureau for India and Ceylon sent 2770 index slips to the Central Bureau in the year under review. This is a slight increase on the number sent in the preceding year. Its upkeep cost Rs. 610-7-6. £279 15s. 10d. were sent to London at a cost of Rs. 4,164-5-6, being subscriptions collected for remission. Three hundred and fifty nine volumes were distributed.

The following gentlemen helped the Bureau by checking the index slips:—

Dr. N. Annandale,
Mr. I. H. Burkill.
Dr. W. A. K. Christie.
Mr. G. de P. Cotter.
Prof. E. P. Harrison.
Mr. D. Hooper.

Mr. H. Maxwell-Lefroy.
Capt. D. McCay.
Dr. G. E. Pilgrim.
Major L. Rogers.
Mr. G. H. Tipper.
Mr. E. Vredenburg.

The following is a list of scientific periodicals published in India and Ceylon which the Regional Bureau will always fully index in the first place. Authors publishing in them may rest assured that the titles of their papers will be forwarded without delay to the Central Bureau. Authors publishing elsewhere are asked to submit reprints in order to call attention to their work.

Societies.

Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

Memoirs of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

Journal of the Bombay Natural History Society.

Official, -Meteorology.

Annual Summary of the Indian Weather Review. Indian Meteorological Memoirs, Calcutta.

Official,—Chemistry.

Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture in India, Chemical Series.

Official, -Botany.

Records of the Botanical Survey of India.

Annals of the Royal Botanical Gardens, Calcutta.

Annals of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Peradeniva.

Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture in India, Botanical Series.

Official, - Zoology, Animal Physiology and Bacteriology.

Records of the Indian Museum.

Memoirs of the Indian Museum.

Indian Civil Veterinary Department Memoirs.

Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture in India, Entomological Series.

Indian Medical Gazette.

Journal of Tropical Veterinary Science.

Official, -Geology.

Memor's of the Geological Survey of India. Records, Geological Survey of India. Palaeontologia Indica, Geological Survey of India.

Official, - Mixed.

Scientific Memoirs by the Medical Officers of the Army of India, Calcutta.

Spolia Zeylanica, Colombo.

The Indian Forest Records.

His Most Gracious Majesty, the late King Emperor, Edward VII.

On a Resolution of the General Meeting of the Society held on the 1st June, 1910, the Council submitted to His Excellency the Viceroy for his approval as Patron of the Society, and transmission to London, a message of Condolence to Her Majesty the Queen-mother and the Royal Family, on the lamented death of His Majesty King Edward VII.

A letter from Dr. N. Annandale regarding a Memorial to the late King Emperor, Edward VII, was referred to the Medical Section of the Society and the Resolution passed at their Meeting held on the 8th June, 1910. was forwarded to Government for information.

Fellowship of the Society.

Regulations were framed to govern the nomination and election of Fellows among the Ordinary Members, and they have been published in the Society's Proceedings for May 1910.

On the recommendation of the Fellows of the Society, the Council has decided that the official abbreviation to be adopted

by the Fellows of the Society shall be F.A.S.B.

In addition to the creation of Fellowships in the Society, the proposal to designate Honorary Members as Honorary Fellows of the Society has been circulated under Rules 64A and 65, and the proposal has been unanimously accepted and approved by all the members of the Society. The Honorary Members will be designated as Honorary Fellows.

Elliott Prize for Scientific Research.

On the report of the Trustees, the Elliott Prize for Scientific Research for the year 1909 was not awarded as the essay received in competition was not of sufficient merit to justify the award of the Prize.

The subject selected for the Elliott Gold Medal for the year 1910 was "Natural Science," and the Notification appeared in the "Calcutta Gazette" of the 16th March, 1910. No essay has been received in competition.

Barclay Memorial Medal.

In order to award the Barclay Memorial Medal for 1911, the following members were appointed to form a "Special Committee" to record their recommendations for the consideration of the Council:—Mr. I. H. Burkill, Major A. T. Gage, I.M.S., Capt. R. E. Lloyd, I.M.S., Mr. E. Vredenburg and Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.

Society's Premises and Property.

The Council has under consideration a proposal made by the Principal, Government School of Art, for an improved system of protection and preservation of the valuable paintings belonging to the Society. There are about 60 oil-paintings in the Society's rooms. The portrait of Shah Ghazi-ud-din Haidar, King of Oudh, has been repaired.

Two new marble tablets for Alexander Csoma de Körös' tomb-stone at Darjeeling, one in English and another in the Hungarian language, have been prepared, and the Superintendent of the Darjeeling Cemetery has been instructed to put them up on the existing tombstone at the cost of the Society.

The question of building new premises for the Society on

its own ground is still under consideration. The Government of India has generously contributed Rs. 40,000 to the Society's Funds towards the cost of the new building, and the Assessor to the Corporation has valued a strip of land to be acquired for the widening of Park Street at Rs. 37,225 or Rs. 4,500 per cottah. As this sum will not be sufficient towards the cost of the new building, the difference will have to be met from the Permanent Reserve Fund. The Corporation of Calcutta has been written to regarding the proposal to rebuild the Society's premises at No. 1, Park Street, and a plan showing the extent of the ground to be covered by the new building submitted for approval.

Exchange of Publications.

During 1910, the Council accepted four applications for exchange of publications, viz., from the Editor, "Ion," a Journal of Electronics, Automistics, Ionology, Radioactivity and Raumchemistry, London, the Society's Journal and Proceedings and the Memoirs for the periodical. (2) From the Laboratorio di Zoologia generale e Agraria della R. Scuola Superiore d'Agricoltura in Portici, the Society's Journal and Proceedings and the Memoirs for their "Bollettino." (3) From the Gouvernement Général de Madagascar et dépendances. Tananarive, the Society's Journal and Proceedings and the Memoirs for their "Bulletin economique." (4) From the South Indian Association, Mylapore, the Society's Journal and Proceedings for their "Journal."

Publications.

There were published during the year, sixteen numbers of the Journal and Proceedings (Vol. V. Nos. 8—11 and Extra No. 2, 1909; Vol. VI, Nos. 1—10 and Extra No. 1910) containing 1321 pages and 54 plates.

Of Memoirs, six numbers were published (Vol. II, Nos. 10 and 11, Vol. III, Nos. 1—3, and Vol. IV, No. 1) containing 475

pages'and 11 plates.

Numismatic Supplement, Nos. 11—14, have been published in the *Journal and Proceedings*, Vol. V, Nos. 8-9, and Vol. VI, Nos. 4 and 10, under the editorship of the Hon. Mr. H. Nelson Wright.

There were also published Parts 3 and 4 of the Society's Library Catalogue and the Index to the Journal and Proceed-

ings, Vol. IV:

Mr. G. H. Tipper continued as General Secretary and editor of the *Proceedings* throughout the year, except for the first 3 months when Dr. N. Annandale and Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott officiated for him. Dr. E. D. Ross left Calcutta for Darjeeling in April and Colonel Phillott was appointed to carry on the

work of the Philological Secretary and editor of the Philological section of the Journal. Colonel Phillott was away at Simla for a short time and Mr. Tipper took charge of the work until Colonel Phillott's return. Dr. Ross returned in June and resumed charge of his office from Colonel Phillott. Mr. I. H. Burkill carried on the duties of the Natural History Secretary and editor of the Natural History section of the Journal till March, when he left India and Dr. W. A. K. Christie was appointed to act for him. Dr. Christie carried on the duties till June, when he left for Europe and Mr. Tipper undertook the work until a successor was appointed. August, Dr. E. P. Harrison was appointed to act as Natural History Secretary until Mr. Burkill's return. Mr. Burkill returned to India in October and took charge of his office. Dr. Annandale was Anthropological Secretary and editor of the Anthropological section of the Journal, while Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri continued as Officer in Charge for the Search of Bardie Chronicles and the work of collecting Sanskrit Manuscripts throughout the year. Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana was away from Calcutta until April, during which time Dr. Ross carried on the duties of the Joint Philological Sectretary. Dr. Ross was also in charge of the Search for Arabic and Persian Manuscripts. Major L. Rogers continued as Medical Secretary throughout the year. The Com-Cabinet was in charge of the Hon. Mr. H. Nelson Wright, who has reported on all Treasure Trove Coins sent to the Society.

Lectures.

During the year, the following seven lectures were delivered in the Society's Rooms:—1. On Csoma de Körös and Tibetan Buddhism—By E. Denison Ross., Ph.D., on 5th January. 2. On the Life of a Sponge, with lantern slides—By Dr. N. Annandale, on 19th January. 3. On Relics of the Great Ice Age in the Plains of India, with lantern slides—By Mr. T. H. D. LaTouche, B.A., F.G.S., on 10th February.

4. On The Memoirs of Sepoy Sita Ram (A.D. 1797-1860)—By Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, on 3rd March. 5. On Halley's Comet—By Prof. E. P. Harrison, Ph.D., on 22nd March. 6. On The Peoples of the Malay Peninsula, with lantern slides—By Dr. N. Annandale, on 27th April. 7. On Esperanto as the International Scientific Language, with lantern illustrations of various scientific texts in Esperanto—By Mr. C. S. Middlemiss, B.A., F.G.S., on 18th May 1910.

Philology, etc.

In the year under review Dr. G. A. Grierson, C.I.E., has brought out the second edition of his Maithili Grammar which

represents a quarter of a century's progress in the study of an interesting and important dialect of North Behar. Supplements to the Punjabi Dictionary by Rev. Graham Bailey are an important contribution to our knowledge of the Punjabi dialect. Pandit Raghu Nath Svami gives an account of an old Prakrit work named Rasiapaāsaņa by Vairocana. Pandit Venkatesh Vamana Sovani in his article entitled the "Discovery of a long metre in Prabodhacandrodaya'' cites an instance of rhythmical Sanskrit prose supposed to have been invented to give expression to the sense of the sublime which cannot be expressed by ordinary verse or prose. Vijayadharma Suri, a learned Jaina priest, contributes a paper on his edition of the Yoga-śāstra as a rejoinder to the review of the same published by Dr. Ferdinando Belloni Fillipi in the Zeitshrift der Deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft. In a Memoir Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Sastri publishes a Sanskrit work called Rama-carita composed by poet Sandhyakara Nandi in the reign of Madana Pala: the work is important as it describes some incidents of the

life of King Rama Pala of the Pala dynasty.

There are also many useful and interesting contributions on historical topics. In an article entitled "Reference to Babylon in the Rigveda," Mr. A. C. Sen cites several legends from the Vedas with their corresponding stories from the Zend Avesta to establish that the word Vamri used in the Rigveda stands for Babylon, as it is identical with the word Bawri of the Avesta and Bibli of Cuneiform inscriptions. Mahamahopadhyaya Hara Prasad Sastri in his article on the origin of the Indian Drama gives a critical analysis of Natya Sastra by Bharata and asserts that the dramatic art of the Brahmanas began with the Indrayatra festival in the pre-Greek period. In his paper on the causes of the dismemberment of the Maurya Empire the same writer tries to show that the great empire of Asoka came to an end by the opposition of the Brahmanas who guided the policy of Pusyamitra. In a separate paper he observes that the verses which were taken by Dr. Rajendra Lal Mitra and Mr. Bendall as introductory to the Prajñāpāramitā are really parts of a different work called Abhisamayālankāra by Maitreyanātha. "Mahārāja Kanikalekha" is the title of a paper in which Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana gives from Tibetan sources some accounts of King Kanishka of the Kusana dynasty and discusses the date of his spiritual adviser, the celebrated poet Asvaghosa. The Mahamahopadhyaya in another article entitled Yasovijaya Gani describes the life of a Jaina philosopher who in his numerous works has preserved a comprehensive review of Brahmanic logic as taught in the Benares academies of the 17th century A.D. In the paper on the kingdom of Nya-khri-tsan-po, Rev. A. Francke maintains that the capital of the first Tibetan king was situated in Ladakh and that the Tibetan script originated in

Turkestan. The same writer, in a paper entitled Ladvags-rgyalrabs, relates the history of the kings of Ladakh, supplementing in many important particulars the brief account given by Dr. Schlagintweit in "Die König von Tibet." The article called "Buddhist legends of Asoka and his times" by Pandit Lakshman Sastri with a prefatory note by Mr. H. C. Norman reproduces the Pali story of how Asoka found the Buddha's relies and distributed them over India. In his article on the history of Kashmire, Pandit Anand Koul restores from Hasan's Persian history an account of thirty-five Kashmirian kings who are not mentioned in the Rājataranginī.

Babu Rakhal Das Banerji has contributed several papers on inscriptions, one of which deposited in the Indian Museum and dated 436 A.D. records the dedication of a certain object to Mahadeva by a minister of king Kumara Gupta I, while another recovered from Natore in Northern Bengal and dated 432 A.D., though badly corroded, is of great interest as it seems to be the earliest copperplate grant known to us. "The Madhainagar Grant of Lakshman Sena" published by the writer proves that the Sena kings of Bengal belonged to the clan of the Karnāta-Ksatriyas and had matrimonial connection with the Chalukyas. The same writer in a paper entitled the "Discovery of seven new-dated records" notices seven short inscriptions of the Scythian period preserved in the Lucknow Museum. "Kotowalipārā spurious Grant of Samācāra Deva" is the title of a paper in which Babu Rakhal Das Banerii offers some observations on the peculiarities of the script of the Grant and Mr. H. E. Stapleton gives an idea of the locality from which the Grant was recovered. Plate of Gayada Tunga Deva published by Babu Nilmoni Chakravarti records the grant of certain land by king Gayada Tunga to a number of Brahmans who came from Ahi-cehatra and settled in Odra-visava probably in the 11th century A.D.

There are several other papers, in one of which Babu Bisvesvara Bhattacharyya controverts the theory advanced by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton that king Gopi Candra was a kinsman and contemporary of king Dharmapāla of the Pāla dynasty. Pandit Binode Behari Vidyavinode in his note on Revanta establishes the identity of an image of a Hindu deity named Revanta, who though little known to us was described in full in old Sanskrit works. Babu Vanamali Chakravarti in his article on "Pramanas of Hindu Logic" discusses the various Indian theories concerning the standards of right knowledge.

A most important publication of the year is the Mahā-vyutpatti edited in three languages, by Dr. E. D. Ross, and Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana. This work, as is well known to scholars, is a Buddhist Sanskrit Dictionary of Technical and Philosophical terms compiled by Indian Pandits and translated into Tibetan by learned Lamas in the

Middle Ages, and rendered into English more than eighty years ago by the celebrated Siculo-Hungarian Scholar Alexander Csoma de Körös, of whom an interesting account is to be found

in the introduction by Dr. Ross.

Babu Monmohan Chakravarti in his paper on the "Pre-Mughal Mosques of Bengal" shows that in the earliest Hindu architectural influence is greatly in evidence. In the later mosques the development of a special style may be traced, the date of its creation and development being synchronous with the dynasties of Ilyās Shāh, Mahmūd Shāh and Husayn Shāh.

The "Murgh Nāma" is a translation by Lieut-Col. D. C. Phillott from the Urdu work "Sayd gāh·i-Shaukat" of Nawāb Yār Muḥammad Khān of the Rāmpūr State, A.D. 1883. It deals chiefly with the habits and ways of the Indian game cock, different modes of cock-fighting, their distempers and remedies thereof. What adds to the interest of the paper is that the author explains all the technicalities which the lay reader would likely find as stumbling-blocks in the course of his perusal.

Mr. H. E. Stapleton in his article entitled "Contributions to the History and Ethnology of North-Eastern India" corroborates his former statement concerning the antiquity of Dacca

by means of a find of Gupta coins.

In the article entitled "A passage in the Turki text of the Babarnamah" Mr. H. Beveridge points out a passage occurring in Ilminisky's edition of the Babarnamah in connection with Hindal's birth, and is of opinion that it is an interpolation by a later writer, probably Jahāngīr, who was not very well informed of his family history or of the history of the period to which the paragraph in question refers.

The Rev. C. Mehl in his article entitled "Some Remarks on Mundārī Phonology and on its treatment in the Linguistic Survey of India" points out the mistake occurring in the section on Mundārī Phonetics of India and holds that the Mundārī equivalents of the Santālī semi-consonants are neither uniform nor stable in their character and that they in this respect as well as in their pronunciation differ widely from their supposed Santālī equivalents.

The Rev. H. Hosten in his article "Who planned the Tap?" holds that the Taj was designed by foreign Architects, chiefly European, and refutes the popular opinion of its being

constructed by native artists.

General Å. Houtum-Schindler of Teheran in a short paper entitled "The word Scarlet" supports the view held by Dr. Ross in his paper on the same published in the Journal for 1908 and says that the word scarlet originally stood for a fine quality of silk. To this Dr. Ross adds a note referring to a Portuguese letter written to Lord Clive by the King of Siam in which among other presents the 'escarlata vermelho' is men-

tioned, showing that the word scarlet at this time still represented a material and not a colour.

Lt.-Col. D. C. Phillott in his "Vocabulary of technical Falconry terms" has given a very valuable collection of technical words used by the oriental sportsmen and thereby makes a very useful contribution to the literature on the subject.

The notes on "The Marsden Collection of MSS. in the British Museum" taken by Messrs. Philipps and Beveridge and edited by the Rev. H. Hosten is of great value as a contribution to the history of Catholic Mission in India. The editor has spared no pains in elucidating and elaborating them where necessary, which adds greatly to the usefulness of the paper.

In a short note on "Old guns in Bengal," Rev. H. Hosten proves by a letter of Father Nicolas Trigault, dated Goa, the eve of Christmas, 1607, that a large number of guns were in

possession of the native Chiefs of Bengal.

Among the memoirs of the Society published during the year under review dealing with philological and historical subjects, "Notes on some Monuments in Afghanistan" of Mr. H. H. Hayden deserves mention. To a student of the Muhammadan archaeology the paper is highly interesting and the subject has been dealt with in a masterly way.

Rev. H. Hosten in his "List of Jesuit Missionaries in Mogor" takes for his guidance the catalogues of the Province of Goa, preserved among the Archives in Europe and supplies us with a complete list of the Missionaries who were

in North India during 1580-1803.

In the Journal for December 1909, Maulavi 'Abdul Wali edited the "Ruba iyât of Abu Sa id ibn Abul Khayr" from the MS. belonging to the Society, with a short note on the work and the author. Professor Hermann Ethé published in 1875 and again 1878 a few quatrains, with metrical German translations in the Sitzungsberichte der philosophisch-philologischen und historischen Classe der K. Akademie der Wissenschaften zu München. The quatrains have also been referred by scholars but up to now no complete copy of the quatrains have been printed. The present edition contains 228 Ruba'iyat, with a preface in English, and the editor hopes to translate the quatrains in English with notes. In the same issue under the title "The Bahmani Dynasty" he suggests that the word Kanku or Gangu after the name of 'Alauddin Hasan, the founder of the Bahmani Dynasty, is a corruption of the word The full title of the founder of the Bahmani Dynasty will run somewhat thus: 'Ala'uddin Hasan bin Kaikaŭs Bahmani.

Mr. H. E. Stapleton in his "Note on seven sixteenth century cannon recently discovered in the Dacca district" describes the seven brass cannon which were discovered in February 1909, in the Dîwân Bâgh, Dacca.

In an extra number of the Journal issued in October, 1910, Dr. E. Denison Ross édited the "Diwan-i-Babur Padishah or a collection of poems by the Emperor Babur from the manuscript belonging to the Library of His Highness the Nawab of Rāmpūr." What adds a special interest to the contents of this volume is the fact that it has preserved a poetical work by Bābur which was hitherto considered to be irretrievably lost. The manuscript which was locally regarded as the holograph of the Emperor throughout is but a work of a scribe with occasional marginal corrections and a fragment of a ruba'l written transversely across the last page in the emperor's own In the introduction to the diwan the editor justifies his having reverted to the spelling Babur which though employed by many earlier European scholars such as Berezine, Ilminisky and Teufel has been mysteriously ousted by the spelling Babar. The evidence is overwhelming in support of his contention, and the editor adds that all the Turki-speaking men he has consulted—whether from Bokhara or Kashghar always pronounced the final ur quite distinctly, which alone, he thinks, is sufficient evidence in support of the form Babur.

Mathematics and the Natural Sciences.

The total number of contributions to the Society's publications under the heading of Mathematics and the Natural Sciences is twenty-seven, being as follows:-

Physics and Chemistry:—(i) Report of the Society's Committee on the adoption of a Standard Temperature for laboratory work in India; (ii) a study of an alchemical compilation of the 13th century, by Messrs. H. E. Stapleton and R. F. Azoo; (iii) Experimental Determination of the Electro-chemical equivalent of nickel, by Babu S. N. Maitra; (iv) Strength of Sulphuric acid in Secondary cells, by Prof. E. P. Harrison; (v) Use of Storage cells in Bengal, by Babu Satish Chandra Mukeriee: (vi) Decomposition of Ammonium Platini-chloride and Platini-bromide under the influence of Heat, by Babus Prafulla Chandra Ray and Atul Chandra Ghose; (vii) Preparation of Phenyl-nitro-methane and (viii) a study of an Indian Medicinal preparation of iron, by Prof. Panchanan Neogi and Babu Bisendra Bhusan Adhikary; (ix) The Chemistry of Butterfats of Buffaloes, by Prof. E. R. Watson and Babus Monohar Gupta and Satis Chandra Ganguly.

ZOOLOGY:—(x) The nature of the Secretion of the insect Phromnia marginella and (xi and xii) two papers on Indian Animal Materia Medica, by Mr. D. Hooper; (xiii) Description of a new fish from the Bay of Bengal, by Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri: (xiv) A brief statement of the growth of our knowledge of oriental flies, by Mr. E. Brunetti; (xv) The occurrence of a Sting ray in the Ganges, by Dr. Anhandale and Mr. Chaudhuri; and (xvi) The Earwigs of India, by Dr. Annandale.

BOTANY:—(xvii) On the pollination of flowers by insects in the Central Provinces, and (xviii) On the spreading of an in-

troduced Croton in Assam, by Mr. I. H. Burkill.

GEOLOGY AND MINERALOGY: -(xix and xx) two papers on fossil remains, by Babu Hem Chandra Das-Gupta, and (xxi) one by Mr. E. Vredenburg; (xxii) a note on the Isomorphism of Anthydrite and Barites, by Prof. Sommerfeldt; (xxiii) a description of the Lonar Lake, by Mr. T. H. D. La Touche.

GEOGRAPHY: -(XXIV) The Journals of Major James Rennell, first Surveyor-General of India, edited by Mr. La Touche; and (xxv and xxvi) papers on the changes of the course of the rivers of Bengal, by Mr. W. A. Inglis and Mr. J. D. Ascoli.

METEOROLOGY:—(xxvii) A discussion of the Correlations of area of matured crops and the rainfall, by Mr. S. M. Jacob.

Three of these have been published in the Memoirs, four

in the Proceedings, and the remainder in the Journal.

The first-mentioned report, that on a Standard Temperature, being of the very greatest importance, the Council has taken measures to bring it before the International Association of Academies in the hope that scientists not only in India but throughout the tropics may agree to work together on the same lines, which will be a working together to the greatest advantage. It should be remembered that the desirability of discussing the matter was first brought before the Society by Prof. P. J. Brühl; to him and to Mr. Hooper, who has been the Secretary of the Committee subsequently formed, very many thanks are due.

Mr. Jacob's paper on Crops and Rainfall is an important contribution to a subject of great interest. The author calculates for instance than one inch of rain above the average in the months of April to September may be expected to increase in the 120 villages of the Punjab with which he deals, the probable Kharif crop by about 177th, and that each additional inch of rain in the other half of the year increases the Rabi crop by $\frac{1}{1500}$.

Important are the geographic papers which the Society has published, dealing with changes in the river courses of Bengal. Man plays with big stakes when he tries to restrain a large river, and the results are of proportionate interest.

Anthropology.

Few anthropological papers have been published during the year, but it has proved possible to maintain a somewhat higher standard than was sometimes the case in the past. It is unfortunate that no support has been given by

the members of the Society to the project of publishing photographs of ethnological interest as a supplement to the "Memoirs." as proposed by the Anthropological Society in 1905. This is a matter in which the census authorities might give considerable assistance. Of the papers issued or in the press the longest and most detailed is an account of the Lisu Tribes of the Burma-China frontier by Messrs. A. Rose and J. Coggin Brown, to whom anthropometrical instruments were lent by the Society. Mr. Coggin Brown has also prepared an account of a Lisu Jew's harp which forms an interesting supplement to the Rev. W. Young's description of this instrument as it occurs in Assam and Burma. Mr. Hooper has published in the "Journal" two papers on Indian drugs of animal origin that have some anthropological interest, while Mr. I. H. Burkill's account of fashion in iron styles is a valuable contribution to the ergology of India. Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri in his description of a sub-caste of fish-picklers in Eastern Bengal utters a protest against the official methods of ethnological research prevalent in this country.

Medical Section.

Monthly meetings of the Medical Section have been held throughout the year with the exception of the two vacation months, and the attendance and interest in the meetings has been well maintained. The most important discussion took place at the June and July meetings on the prevention of Liver Abscess by the Ipecacuanha treatment of Acute Hepatitis, which was opened by Lt.-Col. Pilgrim and continued by the physicians of the Medical College Hospital and other members. The unanimous opinion expressed in the great success of this treatment will go far towards procuring its general adoption, with the result of practically banishing one of the most dangerous tropical diseases, as far at any rate as Europeans are concerned, who come early under skilled treatment. Other noteworthy contributions were a lantern lecture on Sleeping Sickness by Captain Greig, a demonstration of direct Laryngotracheoscopy by Major O'Kinealy, and of Pathogenic and Non-Pathogenic Amoebae by Captains Lloyd and Greig. Clinical cases were also shown at nearly all the meetings.

At the June meeting a proposal that either a Tropical School of Medicine in Calcutta or a Sanitorium for consumptives in a suitable climate would form an appropriate memorial to the late King Edward was discussed by the Medical Section. at the request of the Ordinary General Meeting of that month. All the members who spoke were in favour of one or both of these proposals, and the following resolution, proposed by

Lt.-Col. Pilgrim, I.M.S., was adopted by the meeting.

"The Medical Section of the Asiatic Society of Bengal,

having considered the letter on the subject referred to it by the Ordinary General Meeting of the Society, is of the opinion that in view of the great interest in Sanitoria for consumptives displayed by the late King-Emperor Edward the Seventh, and of the urgency of the provision of such Sanitoria in suitable centres in India, as pointed out by this Section last year,—such Sanitoria, of an Imperial character and appealing to all, irrespective of Race or Religion, would be most suitable objects of expenditure of a portion of the funds raised in India to commemorate His Late Majesty. They are further of the opinion that if sufficient funds are available, a grant towards the recently proposed Institution for Research in Tropical Diseases and post-graduate instruction, would also be most appropriate."

This was forwarded to the Memorial Committee, and has been included in the objects on which the Bengal funds are to be expended. It is also worthy of note that the previous year's resolution on the necessity for Sanitoria for tuberculosis in India has borne fruit, for after being endorsed by the Government of India in a letter to the Local Governments, both the United Provinces and the Madras have decided on the erection

of such institutions as memorials to the late King.

The formation of a medical reference library has made another step forward through the purchase of £100 worth of standard medical works from the special grant given by the Council. The books were selected by a sub-committee of the library committee after careful consideration, while a similar sum will be available during 1911. In addition a number of valuable sets of medical journals have been presented by medical members, and it is to be desired that a list of medical works in the library should be compiled and printed, as so many medical books and journals have been received since the library catalogue was arranged. The number of medical members has continued to increase during the past year, the new additions being largely recruited from outside Calcutta as a result of the formation of the medical library, the total being now about 100; thus much more than fulfilling the expectations at the time of the foundation of the Medical Section.

Bibliotheca Indica.

Of the 31 fasciculi of texts of different dimensions published in the Bibliotheca Indica Series during the year under review, 15 belong to Brahmanic Sanskrit, 2 to Jaina Sanskrit, 1 to Jaina Prakrit, 3 to Buddhist Sanskrit, 3 to Sanskrit and Tibetan and the remaining 7 to Arabic and Persian literature. These fasciculi include Mr. Beveridge's translation of the Akbarnama, vol. 11, fasc. vii; Mahamahopadhyaya Ganga Nath Jha's translation of Tantravartika, fasc. vii, viii; and Mahamahopa-

dhyaya Chandra Kanta Tarkal inkar's revised edition of Grhyasamgraha. Of the new works sanctioned last year, 11 fasciculi have been published this year, viz.:-

- The Sürva-siddhanta (a Sanskrit treatise on Astronomy) edited with a gloss by Mahamahopadhyaya Sudhakara Dvivedi.
- 2. "Six Buddhist Nyāya Tracts" edited by Mahamahopadhyaya Hara Prasad Sastri. The work includes such Buddhist logical treatises as Apohasiddhi and Ksanabhangasiddhi by Ratnakirti.
- 3. Syainika-sästra or a book on hawking in Sanskrit edited with an English Translation by Mahamahopadhyaya Hara Prasad Sastri.
- 4. Nyāya-sāra (a Brahmanic Sanskrit work on Medieval Logic) edited by Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana. It embodies the text of Bhā-sarvajña (about 900 A.D.) and the Jaina commentary of Jayasimha Suri (about 1365 A.D.) together with an elaborate index and introduction.
- 5. Tattva-cintāmani-dīdhiti-prakāśa (a Sanskrit work on Modern Logic) edited by Mahamahopadhyaya Guru Charan Tarkadarsanatirtha. It embodies the Tattva-cintamani text of Gangesa, the Didhiti commentary of Siromani and the Prakāśa gloss of Bhavānanda.

Tirtha-cintāmani (a Sanskrit work on Smriti by Vācaspati Miśra) edited by Pandit Kamala Krishna Smrititirtha.

- 7. The Persian and Turki Divans of Bayram Khan, Khan-khanan, edited by Dr. E. D. Ross. Bayram-Khan, the celebrated author of the text, lived in the 16th century A.D. in the courts of Humavun and Akbar.
- 8. Marhamu-'l-'Ilali 'l-mu' dila (a philosophical treatise in Arabic) edited by Dr. E. D. Ross. Imam Yafi'î, the author of the work, was born in Yemen about 1298 A.D.
- 9. Mabani l-Lughat (a grammar of the Turki language in Persian) edited by Dr. E. D. Ross. Mirza Medhi Khan, author of the work, was a native of Astrabad and contemporary of Nadir Shah.
- 10. Ma'aşir-i-Rahimi (memoirs of Abd-ur-Rahim Khan Khanan by Muka Abdul-Baqi Nahavandi) edited by Maulavi Hidyet Husain.
- 11. Tadhkira-i-khushnavisan (in Persian) edited Maulavi Hidyet Husain. Mawlana Ghulam Muhammad, author of the work, was born at Delhi and died at Lucknow in 1823 A.D.

The following coins were presented to the Asiatic Society's Cabinet during the past year :--

•					•
		1	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.
Ancient India—		· ·			
Punch Marked	• •	• •	¢	10	
Andhra	<i>:</i> ·	• •			7
Mediæval India-		•			
Gadhia				1	ı
South Indian			20		
Pathān				2	2
Mughal			1	3	
East India Company	ν			4	
French Company				1	
	luding	Native			
States	•••	••	1	7	2
		_	22	28	11
	Total			61	

The Numismatic Secretary examined and reported on the following coins under the Treasure Trove Rules:-

From			Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	
Damoh				13		
Government M	Iuseum, Ma	dras	18Ì	•		
Seoni					357	
Bhandārā					362	
Seoni				104		
Jubbulpore				103		
Hoshangābād		•		376		
Jubbulpore			1			
Bhandārā				76		
Mandlā				4		
Mandlā				115		
Mandlā				222	10	
Buldāna			25			
Damoh	• •			25		
Drūg				67		
Wardhā				200		
Hoshangābād			6			
			213	1,305	729	
Total			2,247			

Of these the large majority were coins of the Mughal Emperors, several being from rare or unpublished mints.

The gold coins from Madras were "huns" of Vijāyanagar of no special rarity. Those from Buldāna may prove to be

of numismatic interest. They/are punched in four places, one of the punched areas containing the words "Shri Jagadeva" in characters of about the twelfth century. The find contained 205 of these coins, but so far only 25 have been sent for examination. A report on this find will appear in due course in the Numismatic Supplement. .

Most of the coins acquired as a result of the above examination will be found in the Nagpur Museum, and it is to be hoped that the Central Provinces Government will see their way in the near future to publishing a catalogue of more value from a numismatic and scientific point of view than the rough

and inaccurate list recently issued.

Search of Sanskrit Manuscripts.

During the course of the year the entire staff of this Department was engaged in preparing a catalogue of the manuscripts hitherto collected for the Government of India numbering 10,000, and in passing through Press two volumes of notices.

Description of 1,000 manuscripts have been prepared; 860 of these belong to the Laksminārāvana Kavi collection made

last year; and the rest belong to the old collection.

The volumes published are the Fourth Volume of the Notices of Sanskrit Manuscripts, Second Series, and an extra number of the Notices embodying the result of the examination made by Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasada Sastri, M.A., in 1907 of the manuscripts added to the Darbar Library, Nepal, from 1898 to 1906.

Of the manuscripts collected during the year, the most interesting is that of a unique work entitled Catuhsatika by Bodhisattva Arya Deva with a commentary, the authorship of which is not known. Not less interesting is an ancient palmleaf manuscript of the Jātakamālā though in fragments, as also some fragments of Chatuspithanibandha, a very rare work. A complete copy of Pancaraksā written in ornamental Newari, dated N. S. 649 = 1469 A.D., has also been acquired.

Six hundred and twenty five manuscripts have been examined with a view to acquisition, but for want of funds they

have not yet been acquired.

The extra number of the notices contains descriptions of many palm-leaf manuscripts which date from the 9th to the 12th century A.D.; one of them was written during the reign of Vigrahapala Deva at Bālahandā, i.e., Bālāndā Pergana of modern times, within 20 miles of Calcutta, showing that there were Buddhist monasteries and Buddhist Pandits at that remote age (latter half of the 11th century) so far in south Bengal.

Bibhūti Chandra was a great Buddhist writer in Bengal in the 13th century A.D. His place was the Jagaddal Vihāra

in Rāmāvatī situated at the confluence of the Ganges and Karatoyā; many of Bibhūti Chandra's works were translated into Tibetan and are to be found in Dr. P. Cordier's catalogue of the Tangur. He was a professor of the Kālacakrayāna School. One of his works, the Amrta Karnikā, has been described in this volume.

The other works of ancient dates described in this volume are as follows, with their respective dates against them:

		. 0		
Bhagavatyāh Svedāyāh	yathā la	bdha		
Tantrarājah	• •		1029	A.D.
Usnisavijayadhāraņī			968	,,
Catuspithaloka			1012	,,
Candi			1162	,,
Sarvavajrodakā	• •		1059	,,
Vajrāvalitantra			1082	,,
Vajrayoginisādhana	• •		1154	,,
Mahākaulajňānavinirņa	ya (from	Palae	0-	
graphy) is dated the				
A.D.		-		
Nāgānanda Nāṭaka			1193	A.D.
Yogambarasadhanopay	ikā co	pied		
during the reign of				
13.		inflict i		
A work on Kryā at	ttributed	to		
Nāgārjuna dated N.S	. 284	=	= 1164	3,
Mitapadāpañjikā by D	urjaya ca	ndra		
dated			1141	,,
Brahmayāmala	• * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	•••	1052	,,
Pingalāmatam			1174	,,
Kādibhede Kubjikāma	am		1195	, ,
Brahma Samhita	• •		1195	,,
Kryākālaguņottara 🔭			1184	,,
Sivadharma			1069	,,
Kiranatantra		, .	924	,,
Višvaprakāšakosa			1111	,,
Tattvasadbhāvatantra			1097	,,

The Bishop's College was founded in 1820. Dr. Mill, the first Principal of the College, collected a large number of manuscripts of which Sanskrit MSS. form no inconsiderable part. The collection has been examined. It contains, among others, complete copies of the Rg. Veda, Pada Pātha and Samhita Pātha, a copy of the Aiteraya Brahmaṇa, a copy of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad, a copy of the Niaukta, several books of the Mahābhārata, four books of the Rāmāyaṇa, a complete copy of Durga Das' commentary on the Mugdhabodha, a complete copy of the Kavikalpadruma with an alphabetical list of roots with their Sanskrit meanings and English

equivalents, a copy of the Kappasuya of the Jainas with a commentary, and a copy of the Syadvadamanjari with a commentary composed in Saka 1214, i.e., 1292 A.D. There is, also, an elementary work on Mīmānsā entitled Nyāya Prakāša. The last two books of the Rāmāyana are in the handwriting of a son of Rāmajaya Mukerji Vidyābhūsana of Somra, copied in 1801. Many parts of the Rg. Veda were copied in the 18th century. The collection though small is very important as it contains standard works on a variety of subjects and is extraordinary for such an early collection by an European scholar.

Search for Arabic and Persian Manuscripts.

Dr. Ross has conducted the search without interruption throughout the year. As heavy purchases were made in the previous year and the payment of many MSS. had to be held over to this year, no extensive tour was made. Only Hafiz Nazir Ahmad, the Chief Travelling Moulvi, was sent to Benares and Lucknow.

A list of the manuscripts which have been collected since Moulvi Hafiz Nazir Ahmad has taken the charge of this Department have been prepared and sent to the press and will be published in due course.

During the year under review about 326 manuscripts were bought, and the collection is representative of almost every

branch of literature.

During the year Moulvi Abdul Hamid, the Resident Moulvi, has left the search work on being appointed Assistant

Librarian in the Oriental Public Library at Bankipore.

For some time Mirza Abul Fazl worked in this situation but he resigned on receiving a better appointment. On account of want of funds no new man was appointed as a Resident Moulvi, and Moulvi Hafiz Nazir Ahmad, the 1st travelling Moulvi, performed the duties of the Resident Moulvi in addition to his own duties.

The recent acquisitions include many interesting manuscripts, among which the following may be mentioned here:-

- (الحصن المتين) Al-Hisn-ul-Matin, an Arabic History of the Nawabs and Kings of Oudh; beginning with the account of Sa'adat Khān Burhān-ul-Mulk the progenitor of the kings of Oudh, down to Wajid Ali Shāh, completed in A.H. 1281. The author 'Abbas Mirza, son of Sayyid Ahmad, who himself belonged to Lucknow and was a contemporary of Wajid 'Ali Shah, divides the work with the following three chapters.
 - 1. Account of the Burhān-ul-Mulk and his descendants.
- Account of the mothers of the Nawabs and Kings of Oudh.
- Account of the relatives of the Nawabs and Kings of Oudh.

- II. (شرح مَهُوْيِهُ) Sharh-i-Shāfiyah, a Persian commentary on Ibn-i-Ḥājib's (died 646 A.H.) Arabic work Ash-Shāfiyyah by Chulām 'Ali whose father Chulam Muḥammad was one of the compilers of the well-known work called Fatāwā-i-'Alamgiri. The author who flourished during the time of Aurangzib and was a tutor to the Emperor's youngest son, Muḥammad Akbar, wrote the present commentary on the Shāfiyyah at the request of the Emperor for his learned daughter Zibun Nessa Begum who wished to learn Arabic Grammar. The commentator wrote every day only so much as would suffice for the daily lesson of the princess.
- III. (الله الطالبين) Náfi'uṭ-Tālibin by Muhammad Ḥāfiz Jālandhari, a pupil of Sayyid Rūḥ who adopted the Takhallus Rūḥi (d. 1220 A.H.) composed in 1184 A.H. The work is divided into three sections—I. Genealogy of Akbar traced from Adam with a short account of the Emperor and his ancestors. chiefly based on Akbar Nāmah, Āin-i-Akbari, Jahangir-nāmah, 'Ālamgir-nāmah and Tārikh-i-'Abbāsi. II. Commentary on the letters and Farmāns of Akbar contained in the 1st daftar of Abu'l-Fazl. III. A short commentary on the 2nd daftar of Abu'l-Fazl.
- IV. (نفحات السابطية) Nafaḥāt-us-Sābāṭiyah. This unique and valuable copy, written in the author's own hand, consists of 13 short treatises on various subjects. The author Muhammad Jawad Sabati, better known as Lutfi, who wrote these treatises in course of his travels, was a Christian and in one of his letters (No. 2) designates himself as العيسوى دفعها

Search for Manuscripts of Bardic Chronicles.

Since the publication of Col. Todd's classical work on the Annals of Rājasthāna, the Cārans of Rājasthāna made a great effort to give a connected history of that interesting country from Bardic sources. The principal Cāran of the Bundi State, Barhat Rāma Singh, wrote a lengthy work on the history of the Hādā Chauhans who for the last three centuries ruled the States of Bundi and Kota. This book with a commentary by Kishen Singh has recently been published in 9 volumes at Jodhpur under the editorship of Paṇdit Rāma Karan. Though giving a history of the Hādā Chauhans it is regarded by the Rajputs as an authentic history of all the principal Rājput States, as the author introduces the history of other States when they come in contact with the Hādāoti States.

But the most important result of this year's operation is the discovery of the real Prithwiraj-rasa. What is generally known as Prithwiraj-rasa is composed of 125,000 šlokas. The late Mahāmahopādhyāya Kavirāj Shama C. Das of Udaipur

pronounced this work to be a forgery. But the Benares editors defended the work as genuine. While Mahāmahopādhyāya Hara Prasāda Shāstrī was at Jodhpur he inquired if any descendants of Chand Kavi were still living, and he met with Pandit Nānu Rām Brahmabhāt, who is lineally descended from Cand Kavi and still lives on the income of the lands granted to the Kavi at Nagore by Prithwiraj himself. Nanu Ram's version is that the original Prithwirāi-rasa extended to only 5.000 verses but that Chand's descendants went on adding to the work till it reached the enormous extent in which it is now found. All those portions of the poem in which Chand's wife is introduced were added by his sons, and the additions continued till Akbar's time. Nanu Ram was very anxious to come to Calcutta and show the manuscript of the original to the Asiatic Society. But his appointment by the Jodhpur State as one of the travelling pandits engaged in the search of Bardic songs prevented his coming. He has however given the Shāstrī copies of 4 or 5 of the Samayas of the original which fully bear out his statements. Efforts will be made to procure copies of the rest of the original manuscript.

Mr. Justice Mookerjee read an address drawn up by the retiring President, Mr. T. H. D. LaTouche.

Presidential Address, 1911.

It has been the custom of late years for the retiring President of this Society to prepare and read before you at the Annual Meeting a review of the work that has been done during his year of office; and under ordinary circumstances I would not have ventured to depart in any way from what has become the established usage, but follow, to the best of my ability, the example of my distinguished predecessors in this respect. My retirement, however, from the service of the Government of India before the expiration of my term of office as your President, and the difficulty under which I labour of obtaining the materials necessary for the compilation of a complete account of the work accomplished by the Society during the past year, lead me now to crave your indulgence if I allude to these matters in a cursory manner only; and on the present occasion, for 'reasons that I shall presently put forward, deal rather with the future, directing your attention to those lines along which, as I humbly conceive it, the Society should advance, in order that the purpose for which it came into being may be accomplished in accordance with the lofty aspirations of its Founder.

I think I may safely say that in the quantity and quality of output, both in literary and scientific work, the past year has shown no diminution in activity in comparison with any of those that have preceded it. Numerous papers have been published in our Journal and Memoirs, some of them possessing much scientific interest. Steady progress has been made in the editing, and publication in the Bibliotheca Indica, of works embodying the stores of learning furnished by the ancient civilization of this country; also in the search for and collection of those extremely interesting manuscripts, dating from long past times, which, through all the vicissitudes of a troublous history, have been preserved by the pious care of princes and pundits in the numerous libraries scattered through the land. In these respects our thanks are due, on the one hand to those distinguished scholars, both in India and in Europe, who have placed their stores of knowledge freely at our disposal; and on the other to those pundits and maulavies who are carrying on the search with so much zeal and success. And our thanks are due not to these alone, but also to the Governments of India, Bengal, and Assam, who by their benefactions have enabled the Society to perform this duty in a more adequate manner than could have been possible if it had had to rely upon its unaided resources.

In addition to these publications and collections, which may be said to represent the fundamental and customary work of the Society, especially on its literary side, an attempt has been made to expand its sphere of usefulness by the admission of the general public to lectures, illustrated when possible, by lantern slides, on various subjects of common interest. Although these lectures did not form an entirely new departure as regards the year now closing, for one or two had been given by Dr. Annandale, to whom in the main they owe their inception, and others during the previous year; yet they may be said to have now become a more or less assured feature of the Society's functions, at least during the cold weather. such is the success that has attended these lectures, and so much interest has been displayed in them by people who, though not members of the Society, are attracted by such opportunities of acquiring some knowledge of subjects unconnected with their daily avocations, that every effort should be made to carry them on. At any rate the experiment, so far as it has gone, has shown that there is no lack, either of subjects suitable for such lectures, or of men able and willing to deliver

During the winter season of 1909-10 two lectures were delivered by Dr. Annandale—the first on "The life of a Sponge," and the second on the "Peoples of the Malay Peninsula," a subject with which he had made himself familiar by a personal study of the less known tribes of that forest-clad country.

Another was given by Dr. Denison Ross on the life and work of the celebrated Hungarian Csoma de Koros, whose zeal and energy in prosecuting an enquiry into the ancestry of his race led him, many years ago, to undertake a journey on foot from his native land to India, a journey that, even at the present day, would be fraught with no slight hardship and peril, and whose researches into the language and topography of that then little-known land, Tibet, have enriched the pages of our Journal. It may not be out of place to mention that Dr. Ross' lecture at once attracted much attention in Hungary, where the name of their compatriot is deservedly honoured by men of letters.

Other lectures included one by Colonel Phillott on the Memoirs of Sepoy Sita Ram (A.D. 1797—1860), a Sepoy who, early in the last century, took service under John Company, and survived to witness and record the exciting scenes of the Mutiny; another by Prof. Harrison, on that most interesting phenomenon, Halley's Comet, whose appearance enabled those who, like ourselves, were privileged to witness it, to conceive a picture, more vivid than any page of written history could present, of those great events of the past which were signalized by its recurrence; while, however divergent may be the views of men regarding the influence of these remarkable bodies upon the destinies of the human race, no one can fail to be struck by the fact that this comet's latest manifestation coincided with an event which, to the sorrow of the nation, may lay claim to be considered as of no less importance than many of those which have attended its baleful progress in the past; need I say that I allude to the death of our beloved Sovereign, Edward VII. And, lastly, I have to mention a lecture by myself on the effects which, as I venture to think, were produced even in these low latitudes by the general refrigeration of climate over the northern hemisphere known as the "Glacial Period," during the progress of which, in all probability, the culminating point in the slow evolution of living organisms was reached with the appearance of man upon the surface of the earth. It is possible, as I endeavoured to show, that even at the present day the vagaries of the great rivers of the Indo-Gangetic plain may be affected by the peculiar conditions that prevailed during that far-off time.

An event to which allusion should also be made is the addition to the Society's library of five leaves of a most interesting manuscript,—secured for us by the enterprise of that most indefatigable guide to the enrichment of our treasures, Dr. Denison Ross,—exhumed from the sands of the Takla Makan desert. Only three leaves of this manuscript are known to be in existence, besides those now in the possession of the Society. One of these is preserved in the Ethnographical Museum at Berlin, while the other two were procured by Prof. Ellsworth

Huntington, who has given photographic reproductions of them in his book "The Pulse of Asia." The peculiar interest of these manuscripts lies in the fact that, although they are written in the ancient Gupta character, the language has so far resisted the efforts of those who have endeavoured to decipher it; and it is to be hoped that to some of the learned scholars whom we number among our members will fall the honour of making known to the world of letters the meaning of this ancient script.

One other event of the past year must be mentioned, and that is the institution amongst us of a body of Fellows, selected from among the active members of the Society, by reason of their eminence in the fields of literature and science. The inception of this change in the constitution of the Society is due to our late distinguished President, Sir Thomas Holland, who worked out the details of the scheme before his retirement. The Fellows were, in the first instance, nominated by the Council, whose selection seems to have met with general approval; but subsequent nominations, as on the present occasion, are in the hands of the Fellows already elected. There can, I think, be no doubt that the honour thus conferred is, and will continue to be, a valuable incentive in carrying out those researches, to the prosecution of which the Society is devoted.

It has also been resolved, as a consequence of this innovation, to substitute for the time-honoured designation of Honorary Member,—a mark of appreciation conferred by the Society on the most eminent men who have, at one time or another, been Ordinary Members,—that of Honorary Fellow; a change that we trust will meet with the approval of those who thus honour the Society by consenting to become incorporated with it, and in turn are honoured by the recognition of their labours which the title denotes. Among those who have borne the older title, we are proud to number one in especial, who happily still survives to enjoy the newer, the veteran of Science Sir Joseph Dalton Hooker, whose connection with the Society has been unbroken for more than sixty years, and whose span of life is almost coeval with that of the building in which we are now assembled.

Having thus, very inadequately I fear, drawn your attention to some of the events of the past year, I think that it would not be inappropriate on the present occasion to glance forward;—and for this reason especially, that we are about to take a step, the importance of which can hardly be overrated, perhaps one of the most momentous in the long and distinguished history of the Society. The building in which our meetings have been held for just over a hundred years, and for so long has been one of the landmarks of Calcutta, has for some time been in so unsound a state that to continue to house

our most valuable library within its walls would stigmatize the Society as being callous to the preservation of their great col lection of books, manuscripts, and works of art, the most complete that exists in Asia, - a collection that has furnished those of us who are willing to make use of it, not only with all that is most instructive amongst the productions of the last century and a quarter in the domains of literature and science, but also with a series of records of the ancient literature of the East such as no other library can show. To do our utmost to preserve this collection is a sacred duty. No words of mine are necessary to convince you that no time should be lost in undertaking this duty. The present building was erected in 1807, at a cost of Rs. 30,000, raised by a special subscription among the members, and for the greater part of a century fulfilled its purpose admirably; but the ravages of time, and especially the great earthquake of 1897, have had no more respect for this structure, in spite of its scientific character, than for any of the older houses of Calcutta, and the constant repairs that have been necessary of late years to keep it from falling to pieces have been a continuous drain upon our resources, and an ever-present source of anxiety to the Council. During the last 15 years some Rs. 30,000 have been spent for this object, that is to say, as much as the original cost of the building.

However reluctant we may be to see our old home demolished.—to substitute for the hall which has re-echoed to the discourses of the most learned men in India for more than a hundred years a new and unfamiliar meeting-place,—the time has come when it would be a criminal act on our part to hesitate in making the sacrifice. The Council has long and earnestly deliberated on the best course to pursue. In the first instance a scheme was drawn up, under which a building was to have been erected, sufficiently large to cover the whole of the plot of land belonging to the Society, and including, besides accommodation for the library, lecture hall, and offices of the Secretary and his staff, a number of residential quar ters and, on the street front, rooms which might be let as shops. These additions, it was thought, would bring in a considerable accession of revenue to the Society. The project was certainly attractive, and might have been successful; but on mature consideration the Council arrived at the conclusion that not only would it hardly be consistent with the dignity of a learned body to enter into competition with house-owners in Calcutta, but also that such a body was not well fitted to embark upon a speculation of this kind, which might result in success, if the existing pressure upon the available house accommodation in Calcutta were to continue; but, on the other hand. if the supply of such accommodation were to exceed the demand, might end in disaster. Having regard also to the great

value of the library, the risk of fire, if inflammable matter were stored in the shops, or if irresponsible lodgers were permitted to occupy a part of the building, was felt to be one that should not be incurred.

This scheme was therefore rejected. But at the same time it was felt that it would be inadvisable to spend the whole of the Society's invested funds upon even so laudable an object; since the interest on these funds supplies a considerable portion of the revenue necessary for the due performance of its work. So greatly have conditions changed within the last hundred years, that it would no longer be possible to erect a building, even of much smaller dimensions than that which we at present occupy, for the comparatively small sum that it cost. Yet it was felt that if we were to build at all, our house of learning should be worthy of its purpose; not only an ornament to this great city, but if possible, such as to afford accommodation for the other Societies which from time to time are founded in our midst. Financially, the Society is in a sound enough position to have carried out this purpose without external aid. The membership is now,—thanks to a very large extent to the accession of members belonging to the profession of medicine, which has followed upon the institution of a special Medical Section,—greater and increasing in a greater ratio than ever before in the history of the Society, and our invested funds now amount to about two lakhs of rupees. But, for reasons which I have already given, the Council was unwilling that these funds should be depleted, and it was resolved that the Government of India should be asked to advance a sum adequate for the purpose, to be repaid by instalments. The Council were confident that this appeal would meet with a generous response, because the preservation of a library such as ours is, without doubt, a matter of Imperial concern, and their anticipations were not unfounded. It is true that the Government of India have not seen their way to advance the whole of the sum asked for, on the terms proposed by the Council; but they have most generously offered a free grant of Rs. 40,000, thus relieving the Society of the necessity of making provision for the repayment. of a loan, and this offer has been gratefully accepted. Government of Bengal, who were also approached on the subject have, I regret to say, merely signified their inability to accept the proposals of the Council, and have made no offer to assist us, so far as the building fund is concerned.

The Government grant, together with a portion of the Society's invested funds, and a sum of about Rs. 37,000, due to us as compensation for a strip of our property, which the Corporation wishes to acquire in order to widen Park Street, will enable us to erect and furnish a building, if not of a very ornate character, yet adequate for its purpose and worthy to be the home of such a body as ours. It is to be hoped there-

fore that during the current year the change will be carried into effect; and that soon after, if not at the next Annual Meeting, my successor will be able to greet you in a new and more commodious edifice. It will always be a source of much gratification to myself that it was during my term of office that this important step was taken, one which, I am convinced, will result in much benefit to the Society; and that I was privileged to assist in bringing the matter to what I trust will prove a successful conclusion.

A new departure of this magnitude suggests to my mind certain observations on the future progress of the Society (long may it continue to flourish!), which I may perhaps venture to put forward now, since this is the last occasion on which, in all probability, I shall have the opportunity of addressing you. For many years after the foundation of the Society, its publications were almost the only medium through which the researches of those who gave themselves to the study of the science and literature of this vast country could be given to the world; at least this is true of the greater portion of India. But, with the establishment by an enlightened Government of separate Departments, concerning themselves with the collection and co-ordination of facts pertaining to various branches of scientific enquiry, it was inevitable that the publication of these facts should become a function of each Department, and that the Society should, to that extent, be deprived of some of its importance. First the Geologists, then the Meteorologists. Zoologists, Botanists, and Archæologists, who formerly contributed much valuable matter to the pages of our Journal, established their own Records and Memoirs, and for some years the Society has become more and more restricted to the domain of literature. Though I would not for a moment have it imagined that I think that this growing concentration on one branch of knowledge implies any degeneration in the activity or aims of the Society, for the publication of the results of enquiries into the ancient civilization and history of India must be regarded as of the utmost importance; yet I do not see why the equally important results of scientific research should be comparatively neglected. The scientific Departments publish the facts; but usually so wrapped up in technical language or in such minute detail that, to the uninitiated, they become either wearisome or perhaps hardly intelligible. And yet it is quite possible to present the essential facts brought to light by these investigations in such a form, that even those who are unacquainted with the methods or with the peculiar dialect employed may be instructed and interested. Our lectures constitute a useful step in this direction; but I should like to see an attempt made to summarize in the Journal the results of scientific work performed in this country, so that the information now often buried beneath masses of statistics and other dry and uninteresting matter might be made more appetizing and available to its readers.

Take, for instance, one subject which I have not yet mentioned, that of Ethnology. We are living in times of more or less rapid change; when the increasing facilities of communication, and the consequent breaking down of physical and mental barriers, are causing even the most uncivilized and exclusive tribes, scattered through the length and breadth of India and Burma, to give up many of their ancient customs and beliefs, and to adopt those of their more enlightened neighbours. No doubt masses of information on these points are to be found in the periodical reports issued by the Census Commission: but how few people, immersed as they are in their own affairs, take the trouble to wade through these reports, in order to extract the few items that may appeal to them. The majority, I imagine, content themselves with the reviews furnished by the newspapers, in which it is hardly possible that more than the merest allusion should be made to the most striking points contained in the original documents. Perhaps it would be too much to expect our divisional Secretaries, who are all busily employed on their own branches of study, to make these extracts themselves; but there seems to be no reason why Committees of two or three members each should not be appointed, charged with the duty of keeping the members of the Society informed of the progress that is being made

In another direction also the Society may perform, if it chooses, a most useful function. That is, in leading public opinion on questions of practical scientific, literary, and even social importance. An instance of the exercise of such a function has occurred within the past year, when the question of providing a public monument to perpetuate the memory of our late Sovereign was mooted, and the most suitable form that such a memorial should take was being discussed. The proposal to found a Medical Research Institute in Calcutta, where those diseases which are incidental to human existence in the tropics can be most conveniently studied, emanated from the Society; and we are glad to find that, although this proposal has not been accepted in its concerete form, yet the idea of devoting some portion of the funds raised to the alleviation of human suffering, an object which was ever present in the thoughts of King Edward VII, has taken root in the public mind, and has been accepted by the Committee formed to decide upon the disposal of the subscriptions.

A question of pressing importance, in which the Society might exercise a valuable influence on public opinion, is that of the form and method of Education that would be most suitable under the conditions prevailing in India. There is no doubt that serious changes are necessary in the present sys-

tem, one that has been established in the country by an alien race, anxious to impress Western ideas of culture upon a people whose point of view differs in many essential respects from their own; and every serious contribution to the discussion that has already arisen with regard to the direction that these changes should take cannot fail to be useful. The Society numbers among its members many learned men of India, all of whom have passed through the educational mill under its present working conditions, and surely some of them are capable of expressing what, from their point of view, constitute the most glaring defects of the system. It seems to me that the Society would fail in its duty if it did not at least attempt to guide public opinion in this matter; one which, although of a somewhat controversial character, is or should be entirely dissociated from political questions, and seems to belong most appropriately to the province occupied by a learned body such as this.

These are not the only directions in which I think that the Society might and ought to exercise its influence, but I have perhaps said enough for my present purpose, that is, to impress upon you my opinion that it should be your endeavour to assume a foremost position in the march of civilized man towards the attainment of scientific and social, as well as of literary perfection. The aim of the Society from the beginning has been a high one; no less, as we learn from the oft-quoted words of our Founder, than the investigation of all that pertains to the operations of Man and Nature in Asia. The field of research that still lies open before you, in spite of the advance made in human knowledge since our Society was founded a century and a quarter ago, is a vast one. And I fervently trust that future years will bring to the Society, not only prosperity along the lines on which it has hitherto travelled, but an increase of activity and influence proportionate to its long and useful career in the past.



Mr. Justice Mookerjee then delivered an address on the works of the Society during the last year.

Vice-President's Address.

In the course of the last five years, the duty has devolved on me several times to address the Society on the occasion of our annual gathering, and I am deeply sensible of the indulgence with which my imperfect survey of the progress of our work has been always received. In the present instance, the interesting address prepared by our retiring President indicates

various channels into which the activity of our members may be turned during the second century of our existence; but his absence from the country since October last has rendered it impossible for him to deal adequately with the history of the last twelve months. I trust, therefore, I may claim your forbearance if I occupy a few minutes of your time with a brief review of the chief features of the work in which we have been engaged during the last year. But before I do so, I hope I may be permitted to refer for a moment to two matters of some importance in connection with what I may call the internal administration of the Society. In the first place, it is a matter for congratulation that the steady increase in the roll of our members has been distinctly maintained during the last year. For the first time in the history of the Society, the number of our members exceeds five hundred, and if we make a comparison with the number as it stood five years ago, the increase during the period has been fully 40 per cent. This is a rate of development of which the most prosperous Societies may be proud, and it is a matter for rejoicing that the accession of our strength is due in a large measure to the members of the medical profession. Their needs are now sedulously watched by our distinguished medical secretary, and I venture to express the hope that this new source of supply will not fail us in the future. The strain upon the finances of the Society must necessarily be great, if its work as a learned institution is to be performed on a scale commensurate with its past reputation, and we trust that, with the advancement of knowledge, there will be a wider appreciation of our work, and a greater readiness on the part of all men of culture to join our ranks. In the second place, as explained in the address of our President, the Council of the Society has arrived at a satisfactory settlement of the difficult problem of our building, which has been a subject of anxious consideration during many years past. The handsome structure in which our valuable Library has been located and our meetings held, is now more than a century old. In recent years, its condition has been unsatisfactory, in spite of constant repairs which have caused a heavy drain on our limited resources. The project of the erection of a large residential building on our land, which occupies a situation of considerable advantage and is an asset of great value. has been minutely examined, criticized and abandoned. The position is unanswerable, that it is inconsistent with the true function and dignity of the Society to engage in building speculation. The Council has consequently decided, and their proposals will shortly be placed before the Society at large, that a building should be erected sufficient to satisfy our legitimate needs. The scheme now under consideration has been rendered feasible, mainly by reason of a generous grant of forty thousand rupees to our building fund by the Government of

India. Since the time of the foundation of our Society, it has been our proud privilege to claim as our patron the head of the administration in this country, and it is not a matter for surprise that our efforts to extend the bounds of knewledge should receive adequate encouragement from the State. The cost of the erection of a new building has not yet been worked out in full detail, and it is not improbable that we may hereafter be driven to ask the Government of India to supplement what it has already so generously given, and we venture to express the hope that, should such a contingency arise, our application will meet with sympathetic consideration by the Government of His Excellency, to whom we are all grateful for the encouragement he has given us by his gracious presence this evening.

Let us now turn for a moment to an examination of the work of the Society during the last twelve months. The feature of that work which at once arrests the attention is the development of what may be compendiously described as Tibetan studies. On a previous occasion, I ventured to lay stress upon the importance of the study of Tibetan sources for the discovery of unexplored materials which might illuminate many a dark corner in Indian history and antiquities. It is now well known that the secluded monks of Tibet carried away from India during, what may be called the dark ages of Indian history, valuable works in different departments of Sanskrit learning which have been preserved in Tibet, sometimes in original, sometimes in translation, though the originals have been completely lost in the country of their birth. The recovery of lost Sanskrit works from Tibetan sources—and similar observations. I may add, apply to Chinese sources—is a matter of considerable interest and importance. I confess, therefore, that every effort made for the promotion of Tibetan studies amongst our scholars, every facility given in this direction, appeals to my sympathy and imagination. We opened the last year with an interesting address by Dr. E. Denison Ross on the great Hungarian Scholar, Csoma de Koros, one of the ornaments of our Society—great in his devotion to pursuit of knowledge, great in his perseverance which alone sustained him all the way from Hungary to India, great in his penetrating insight into the structure of the Tibetan language, and great in the mastery which he acquired of works written in that difficult tongue. During the last year also, we have made satisfactory arrangements for the re-publication in a collected form of the papers of Csoma de Koros, and actually brought out the first part of his trilingual vocabulary which has remained unpublished in our possession for more than three quarters of a century. work is essentially a Buddhist Sanskrit dictionary of technical and philosophical terms, compiled by Indian Sanskritists, transjated into Tibetan by learned Lamas in the Middle Ages, and endered into English in the beginning of the last century by

The work is under the competent editorship Csoma de Koros. of Dr. Denison Ross and Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, and will have the advantage of a masterly introduction by the firstnamed scholar. In this connection, it is interesting to note that arrangements have been made by the Society to place two new marble tablets, one in English, the other in Hungarian, upon the tomb of Csoma de Koros at Darjeeling. It is but meet that the Society should do honour to the memory of one of our most distinguished members whose works have added to our renown; and we can easily imagine how enraptured his soul would have been, if he could re-visit the scene of his labours, where we have at length engaged a Tibetan Lama to take care of the collection of books so essential for the progress of his favourite studies. I have not yet, however, made any reference to the most notable incident of the last twelve months in connection with the acquisition of materials for the progress of Tibetan studies,-I mean the purchase by the Society of a complete set of the Tangvur, a Tibetan encyclopædia of literary works, both sacred and secular, consisting of two-hundred and twenty-five volumes. Gentlemen unacquainted with the history of this wonderful collection, will be able to realize, to some extent, its variety and magnitude when I tell them that one of the four sections into which the entire work is divided, embodies more than one thousand separate treatises on theology, philosophy, logic, ethics, grammar, rhetoric, poesy, prosody, lexicon, astronomy, astrology, medicine, alchemy and the mechanical arts. It is an interesting fact that as the art of printing had been introduced into Tibet from China in very early times, this vast work was stereotyped in wooden blocks, and the edition just acquired for our library appears to have been printed from blocks prepared in 1731 at the monastery of Narthang in Tibet. It is worthy of note in respect of the works comprised in the Tangvur, as also those comprised in the other encyclopædia, called the Kangyur-which occupies one-hundred-and-eight massive volumes and of which we have possessed a set for many years—that they are mainly of non-Tibetan authorship. The treatises are principally Tibetan versions from Sanskrit and Chinese texts made in the ninth century of the Christian era. It is said that the encyclopædias were put into their present forms, at the end of the thirteenth century, by a distinguished Tibetan sage named Buton, who devoted to the task thirty years of strenuous labour. The traditional account of the circumstances under which the works were compiled, if true, illustrates how even amid the most adverse surroundings and in an age by no means remarkable for its encouragement of literature or spread of civilization, monumental work was accomplished by secluded monks by years of unremitting effort and devotion. Zengis Khan, the famous founder of the Mongolian kingdom, conquered China in the beginning of the thir-

teenth century. His grandson, Kublai Khan, extended his sway over the whole of Central Asia inclusive of Tibet, and some glimpses of the extent of his Empire may be gathered from the writings of the celebrated Venetian traveller Marco This Kublai Khan was apparently a man of culture, and invited a Tibetan Lama to his Court to assist him in the formation of an alphabet for the Mongolian language. In return for his services. Kublai Khan made the Lama the tributary sovereign of Tibet and spiritual head of the Tibetan Church. The Lama thus placed in a position of authority, employed the sage Buton to enrich the Tibetan language by translations from Chinese and Sanskrit sources. The work was rendered possible by the presence in Tibet of a number of Buddhist Sanskritists who had crossed the Himalayas from India and taken refuge in Tibet on the sack of the University of Vikramsila by Bakhtear Khiliji. The compilation of the work was thus facilitated by what was then rightly treated in India as a calamity to the cause of Sanskrit and Buddhist learning; and the permanent preservation of the fruits of the joint labours of the Indian Pundits and the Tibetan Lamas was secured by the art of printing which had been introduced into Tibet from China in the seventh century of the Christian era, and had obviously attained considerable development. The two encyclopædias I have mentioned, whose contents have not up to the present time been exhaustively scrutinized, are known to embody works in various departments of Sanskrit learning, the originals of which can no longer be traced in this country. It is, therefore, obviously a matter for congratulation that such an unexplored field of research should be placed within the reach of our members. Copies of the Tangyur are very rare on this side of the Himalayas; so far as I know, there are only two sets, both of them in inaccessible monasteries at Sikim, and some years ago, one of our members considered himself extremely fortunate when after considerable hardship and expense he obtained an access to these monasteries, and was allowed as a special favour to take notes from the encyclopædia. European scholars, however, have been more fortunate; the set which was collected from Nepal by Brian Hodgson, about a century ago, was deposited in the India Office, and another set brought from Gyantse by the Tibet Mission of 1904 found a place in the British Museum. There is also a set in Paris, but two sets secured by the Russian Government and deposited in St. Petersburg are said to be by far the best specimens hitherto obtained. I venture to express the hope that scholars will now be forthcoming in this country to explore the abundance of materials placed at their disposal. Csoma de Koros prepared a very brief abstract of the contents of the Tangyur more than eighty years ago, which has been republished in France. Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana has published in our

Journal only the first instalment of a subject Catalogue of the work. Dr. Cordier has also recently published a volume of nominal catalogue, and it is understood that Mr. Thomas is engaged in London on a similar task. Here manifestly is an extensive field of research, where the laborious scholar may hope to find profitable work, and no one need regret that he was not born in the last century when Indian studies were still in their infancy. I sincerely trust that our young men will take, in large numbers, to the study of Tibetan, which, under the sanction of the Government of India, is now recognized by the University of Calcutta as one of the subjects of examination.

Let us now turn our attention to the work done by our members during the last year in the field of Indian Philology, History and Antiquities. Here, again, we have fortunately acquired what must be deemed an invaluable treasure from the desert of Central Asia. Our Philological Secretary was able to secure for us six old leaves, written in Brahmi characters, belonging to a very old Puthi found by Mr. Kara in the Takla Makan Desert. Three other leaves are known to exist, two in Chicago, and one in Berlin; the latter has been deciphered by Drs. Sieg and Siegling, and has been found to contain names of Bodhi Sattvas. It would obviously be a gracious act on the part of the Society to allow these distinguished scholars to continue the work of investigation they have initiated, and thus throw light, if possible, upon the nature of the contents of the Buddhistic work of which the leaves in our possession appear to form but a fragment. It would be a bold task to anticipate the ultimate result of these investigations, but this much seems to be reasonably clear, that centuries ago Buddhistic and Sanskritic influences which owed their origin to India were in full operation in Central Asia. Amongst the researches prosecuted by our members during the last twelve months, prominent mention must be made of the work of three scholars who have made important contributions to our knowledge of different dialects, namely, Dr. Grierson on Maithili in North Behar, Mr. Baily on the Punjabi, and Mr. Mehl on the Mundari in Chota Nagpur. In the domain of Sanskrit learning, we have had important contributions from Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Sastri, Mr. A. C. Sen and Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana. Their papers raise important questions in connection with ancient and mediaeval Indian History, and topics such as supposed reference to Babylon in the Rig Veda, the causes of the downfall of the Empire of Asoka or the date when the celebrated poet Asva Ghosha flourished, must obviously be deemed highly controversial. Other writers, amongst whom may be mentioned Mr. Stapleton, Babu Rakhal Das Banerji and Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, have had recourse to materials of a very different character to enable them to throw light upon obscure points of Indian History. The first two have laid

under contribution coins and inscriptions to establish the antiquity of Dacca and the genealogy of the Sen Kings of Bengal, while the third has traced evidence of Hindu architectural ideals in the early Mahomedan Mosques of Bengal. Dr. Satis Chandra Vidvabhusana has continued his researches in the fascinating subject of the history of mediæval Indian Logic, and has made available to scholars valuable treatises like Nava Sara. the only work extant on Brahminic Logic of the Middle Ages, Pariksha Mokshasutra of the Digambar Jains, Nyayavatara of the Svetamvara Jains and Nyaya Prabesa of the Mahayana Buddhists. These works serve to give us considerable insight into the relative positions of the different schools of Indian Logic, a subject hitherto involved in much obscurity. connection, reference must be made to an interesting paper on Hindu Logic by Prof. Vanamali Chakravarti, in which he discusses the various theories concerning the standards of right knowledge as laid down by Indian logicians. Of a very different character is the Memoir on Monuments in Afghanistan by Mr. Havden, embodying a masterly investigation which cannot fail to rouse the interest of all serious students of Mahomedan Archaeology. In the field of Arabic and Persian studies also, notable work has been accomplished. Moulavi Abdul Wali has edited for the first time a complete collection of the Quatrains of Abu Said Ibn Abul Khair, of which a fragment only had been published in the proceedings of the Munich Academy, thirtyfive years ago, by Prof. Ethé. Of fascinating interest is the collection of poems of Emperor Babur edited by Dr. Denison Ross from the interesting manuscript in the library of the Nawab of Rampore, which is in part in the autograph of the illustrious Royal author. Partly scientific and partly philological in character is the contribution by Mr. Stapleton and Mr. Azoo in which they give us a study of an alchemical compilation of the thirteenth century. In the field of the natural and physical sciences, there have been numerous papers which treat of various points of interest to the investigator, but I trust I may without impropriety mention two of these as of special value. The report of the Committee on the adoption of a standard temperature for laboratory work in India is of the greatest practical utility to all scientific investigators in the Tropics. and we are indebted to Prof. Bruhl for directing attention to the importance of the subject. The other paper on crops and rainfall by Mr. Jacob furnishes us with data to determine the relation between the increase of rainfall and the increase of crops; the subject is obviously one of far-reaching interest and deserves extended investigation.

There is only one other matter which demands special mention on the present occasion. I refer to the work in aid of the search for Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian Manuscripts. The importance of this undertaking cannot be over-estimated, as

the rapidity with which manuscripts in the climate of this country are destroyed, renders it the imperative duty of the State to take early and adequate steps for their rescue and preservation. I have never concealed my opinion that the sums annually placed at our disposal are by no means adequate to meet the exigencies of the situation. The report of the progress of the search during the last year in its two departments, under the respective direction of M. M. Haraprasad Sastri and Dr. Denison Ross, will satisfy the most superficial reader that the limited means under our control have been judiciously and effectively applied. In the field of Sanskrit literature, we have been able to secure manuscripts from 800 to 1000 years old, while six-hundred and twenty-five manuscripts have been examined with a view to acquisition, but, for want of funds, have not yet been purchased. Similarly, in the Arabic and Persian Department, though several valuable manuscripts were secured, notably a commentary on the well-known Arabic work Safia, our operations were considerably restricted on account of want of funds. We have also a faint indication of the valuable and hitherto unutilized materials for the history of ancient and mediaeval India which may be available if a vigorous search is instituted in the Rajput States, and among others it may yet be possible to recover the celebrated work Prithiraj Rasau in its pristine purity. I trust I may be permitted without impropriety to dwell upon the circumstance that the onerous work which is done by distinguished scholars in aid of the search for these manuscripts is entirely honorary, and their labours have never been remunerated from private funds or public revenues; this, I venture to think, substantially strengthens our claim upon the Government for additional funds to expedite the search and thus rescue from destruction materials for future investigation.

I hope this imperfect review of the work of the Society during the last twelve months will amply justify the statement that our members, most of whom have scanty leisure left for investigation after discharge of their ordinary official duties, have devoted themselves, with praise-worthy determination and with some measure of success, to extend the bounds of knowledge in various departments of intellectual activity which, according to our illustrious Founder, is the object of this Society; and I further hope that the younger members of our Society will feel convinced that the field of research they have just entered is boundless, and that the toiler is likely to be rewarded in the future by as rich and varied a harvest as ever fell to

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Dr. G. Thibaut, Ph.D., D.Sc., C.I.E., read a paper on Indian Astronomy.

The Senior Vice-President announced the election of Officers and Members of Council to be as follows:—

President.

Colonel G. F. A. Harris, M.D., F.R.C.P., I.M.S.

Vice-Presidents.

The Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, C.S.I., D.L., D.Sc., F.R.S.E.
G. Thibaut, Esq., Ph.D., C.I.E.
Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, M.A.
Lieut.-Colonel F. J. Drury, M.B., I.M.S.

Secretary and Treasurer.

General Secretary:—G. H. Tipper, Esq., M.A., F.G.S. Treasurer:—D. Hooper, Esq., F.C.S.

Additional Secretaries.

Philological Secretary:—E. D. Ross, Esq., Ph.D.

Natural History Secretary:—I. H. Burkill, Esq., M.A.,

F.L S.

Anthropological Secretary:—N. Annandale, Esq., D.Sc.,

C.M.Z.S., F.L.S.

Joint Philological Secretary:—Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, M.A., Ph.D., M.R.A.S. Medical Secretary:—Major L. Rogers, M.D., B.S., I.M.S.

Other Members of Council.

The Hon. Mr. Abdulla al-Mamun Suhrawardy, M.A., LL.D. Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, M.D., F.R.C.S., D.P.H., I.M.S.

The Hon. Mr. Justice H. Holmwood, I.C.S.

• E. P. Harrison, Esq., Ph.D. Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott.

H. H. Hayden, Esq., B.A., B.E., F.G.S.

W. K. Dods, Esq.

The Senior Vice-President also announced the election of Fellows to be as follows:—

E. A. Gait, Esq., C.I.E., I.C.S.

H. H. Hayden, Esq., B.A., B.E., F.G.S.

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The following exhibits were shown:—

Mr. Hooper exhibited charts and specimens connected with the enquiry about the relation between rice and the disease called beri-beri.

The Officers of the Natural History Section of the Indian Museum exhibited specimens of the natural enemies of mosquitoes.

Major A. T. Gage exhibited photographs illustrating the history of quinine in India during the last fifty years.

Mr. Vredenburg exhibited a photograph of an incised rock-drawing from the hill-fort of Raisen in Central India, together with some views of the fort.

Dr. Harrison exhibited certain optical instruments.

Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri exhibited some Sanskrit manuscripts and Bardic Chronicles.

Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana exhibited a chaitya from Ceylon and explained the photographs of Boroboedor temple in Java.

Dr. Ross exhibited some Arabic and Persian Manuscripts and the leaves found in Central Asia and the Tangur.

The Meeting was then resolved into the Ordinary General Meeting.

Colonel G. F. A. Harris, M.D., F.R.C.P., I.M.S., President, in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Eleven presentations were announced.

The following eight gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Mr. G. R. Kaye, Department of Education; Calcutta, proposed by Dr. E. Denison Ross, seconded by Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri; Mr. Jas. Insch, Messrs. Duncan Bros., 89, Park Street, Calcutta, proposed by Mr. D. Hooper, seconded by Mr. I. H. Burkill; Hon. Mr. Justice Heabert William Cameron Carnduff, C.I.E., I.C.S., Judge, High Court, 5, Hungerford Street, proposed by Hon. Mr. Justice H. Holmwood, I.C.S., seconded by Dr. N. Annandale; Mr. Arthur W. Stonebridge, Chief Electrical Engineer, Messrs. Burn & Co., Ltd., 7, Hastings Street, Calcutta, proposed by Mr. D. Hooper, seconded by Mr. I. H. Burkill; Babu Manmatha Nath Mukherjea, M.A., B.L., Sub-Divisional Officer, Uluberia, Howrah, proposed by Babu Monmohan Chackravarti, seconded by Mahamaho-

padhyaya Haraprasad Shastri; Babu Norendra Nath Law, M.A., 96, Amherst Street, Calcutta, proposed by Babu Monmohan Chackravarti, seconded by Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri; Major H. W. Grattan, R.A.M.C., Command Laboratory, Lucknow, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Capt. J. W. D. Megaw I.M.S.; Dr. H. G. Waters, East Indian Railway, Jamalpur, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.

The following papers were read:-

1. Frey John of the Cross O.S.A. (+1638).—A note by REV. H. HOSTEN, S.J.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

2. Curious Phenomena in Kashmir.—By PANDIT ANAND Koul.

There are many places and things in Kashmir which are peculiar in themselves and some of them quite beyond ordinary human comprehension. The orthodox Hindus taking them as Divine manifestations worship them, while others consider that they are merely Nature's phenomena. Some of these I have visited and seen myself, and in regard to others which I have not been able to visit I have ascertained facts from different reliable persons who have actually been to the places and seen the things for themselves. Anything I could not give credence to in regard to places mentioned below, has been omitted by There are other places about which wonderful stories are told, but I have omitted them also, as I was not able to visit them myself, nor any trustworthy person could corroborate to me the stories told of them. I give the information I have collected with the object that it may draw the attention of some scientist who may explain away these freaks of Nature.

1. Amar Náth.—There is a cave in the eastern mountains eight marches from Srinagar, in which a lingám of ice is by itself formed, which, it is said, waxes and wanes with the moon every month. A fair is held here every year on the full-moon day of the month of Sawan (July-August) at which thousands of Hindu pilgrims from Kashmir and different parts of India come to worship. It is said there exists a cave in the mountains further east of Amar Nath and also in the mountains above Bandipura where similar lingáms of ice are formed.

2. Tulamul in Lár.—There is a spring at this village, the water of which changes colour every now and then. Sometimes it is purple, sometimes green, and so on. The Hindus worship here. A large fair is held each month on the 8th and 15th days of the bright fortnight, specially of Jeth (May-June).

3. At Takar in Uttar Machhipura there is a spring, the

water of which, like the Tulamul spring, changes colour every now and then.

4. Trisandhya or Sunda-brári.—This is the name of an intermittent spring to the south of the Divalgám village in Brang. It remains dry all the year round except in the months of Baisakh and Jeth (April-June). At first the water flows out from it continuously for some days as from an ordinary spring and then it does so at intervals, that is to say, the spring becomes quite void of water and then water reappears therein and flows out of it. This intermittance occurs several times in 24 hours, until in course of time the number of ebb and flow gradually dwindles down to none. A Persian poet has written the following couplet describing this spring:—

Turfa'aine hast dar Kashmir námash Sunda-brár Amad-o-rafte 'ajab dárad ba roz-o-shab sih hál.

5. Rudra-Sandhya.—This is also a spring like Trisandhya, dry during the whole year but flowing with water continuously for some days and then getting void of it at intervals during the months of Baisakh and Jeth (April = June). It is six miles from Vernág towards the west.

6. Vásuknág.—This is a large spring, six miles further west from Rudra-Sandhya. It remains quite dry for six months of winter but flowing with water (which forms a big

stream irrigating a large area) for six months of summer.

7. There is a spring situated five miles to the east of Vernág which is called Pavana-Sandhya. It ebbs and flows continually as though it breathes pavana or air like a living creature, hence its name. A Persian poet describes it in the following couplet:—

Chishmae digar ba Kashmir ast námash Pavana-Sand Hast har dam ámad o raftash chu anfáse rajál.

- 8. Sata Rishi.—These are seven springs close to one another at Vithavatur near Vernág, which, like Vásuknág, remain dry for six months of winter and flowing with water for summer months.
- 9. At Halamatpura in Uttar Machipura there are five springs near one another. A lingám of stone is in one of these springs, which is said to move by itself round it, making one move from one corner to the other in one month. Some people explain this away as below. The bed of the spring is sandy and its level varies with the action of water-oozing which makes one corner higher and the other lower alternately, and thus the lingám (which does not stand vertical but is lying in a horizontal position) in the bed of the spring rolls down slowly from the higher to the lower corner under the law of gravitation:

10. At Dubjan in Shupayan there is a spring called Tatadán, the water of which is warm.

11. In Brang there is a spring at the village Gagar-Tshunda near Lárikpura which is called Kon-nág by the Muhammadans and Sitá-kund by the Hindus. Some of the fish therein are blind in one eye.

12. In Lar is the lofty mountain called Harmukh. The popular notion is that a snake within sight of this mountain

will not bite.

13. There is a cave temple, called Dyáneshvar, 12 miles to the east from Bandipura in Arin Nullah, in which there is a stone image of a cow on its ceiling, from whose udders water oozes out and falls down below.

14. There is a cave at Bumzu to the north of Mattan, the length of which none has yet been able to find. Another similar cave exists at Biru in which the famous ascetic and philosopher Abhinaugupta together with his 1,200 disciples is said to have entered reciting the well-known hymn—

ॐयाप्तचराचरभावविश्रेषं चिन्मयमेकसनन्तसनादिस् भैरवनायसनायश्ररखं वन्मयचिततयाष्ट्रदिवंदे १

and to have not returned.

15. There is a place called Svayambhu or Suyam, half a mile to the south-west of the village Nichihom in Machhipura, where after long periods, say once in 30 years, the earth gets heated for a year or so. The Hindus then go there on pilgrimage. Rice with water in pots, buried to neck into the earth, gets cooked by this heat, and the Hindus offer cakes of rice, thus cooked, in the name of their deceased relations. A flame is also produced by pouring down ghee and sugar in a hole dug into the earth about a foot deep. This is evidently a volcanic phenomenon.

16. There is a tiny little island in the midst of the Jhelum at Priyág or the junction of the Sindh with the Jhelum, on which is a small Chenár which does not either grow taller or shorter or bigger, though ages have passed since when

it is there.

17. At the Wuyan village (Ular) there is a spring, bathing in which has the effect of curing itch. There is also a similar spring at Anantnág called Malaknág. Medical men say that they are thermal springs containing iron and sulphurated hydrogen.

18. There is a spring on the top of the Sarbal mountain in Kothár which is called Tsuhar-nág. The water of it gushes out with great force, making whirls like the potter's wheel.

3. The Bardic Chronicles.—By Манаманорарнуача Наварвар Shastri.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

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The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 8th February 1911, at 9-30 P.M.

Colonel G. F. A. Harris, I.M.S., President, in the Chair.

The following members were present:-

Lt.-Col. W. J. Buchanan, I.M.S., Lt.-Col. J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. C. H. Elmes, Dr. Gopal Chandra Chatterjee, Dr. Indumadhab Mallick, Captain J. G. P. Murray, I.M.S., Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Lt.-Col. A. H. Nott, I.M.S., Dr.-J. E. Panioty, Dr. A. White Robertson, Captain J. D. Sandes, I.M.S., Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors:—Assistant Surgeon A. A. E. Baptist, Major C. G. de Gruyther.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The nomination of the new Medical Secretary was post-poned.

Dr. A. White Robertson showed a case of Tubercular caries of the Cerireal Vertebrae.

Dr. Chatterjee showed:—(1) Patient in whom a lesion of the upper lip due to Streptococci which was cured by vaccine treatment. (2) A boy with phthisis successfully treated by tuberculin.

Dr. A. White Robertson read a paper on:—"The Microscope in General Practice, with special reference to Blood Counts," which was discussed by Colonel Harris, Lieut.-Col. Nott, Captain Megaw, Dr. Chatterjee, and Major L. Rogers.

LIST OF MEMBERS

OF THE

ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL.

ON THE 31ST DECEMBER, 1910.

OF THE ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL FOR THE YEAR 1910.

President:

T. H. Diggs La Touche, Esq., B.A. (Cantab), F.G.S.

Vice-Presidents:

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, M.A., D.L., F.R.S.E.
G. Thibaut, Esq., Ph.D., C.I.E.
Mahāmahopādhyāya Haraprasād Shāstrī, M.A.
Lieut.-Colonel F. J. Drury, M.B., I.M.S.

Secretary and Treasurer.

General Secretary:—G. H. Tipper, Esq., M.A., F.G.S.
Treasurer:—D. Hooper, Esq., F.C.S.

Additional Secretaries.

Philological Secretary: —E. D. Ross, Esq., Ph.D. Natural History Secretary: —I. H. Burkill, Esq., M.A., F.L.S.

Anthropological Secretary:—N. Annandale, Esq., D.Sc., C.M.Z.S.

Joint Philological Secretary: - Mahāmahopādhyāya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, M.A., Ph.D., M.R.A.S.

Medical Secretary:—Major L. Rogers, M.D., B.Sc., I.M.S.

Other Members of Council.

H. G. Graves, Esq., A.R.S.M.
Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L.
The Hon. Dr. Abdulla al-Mamun Suhrawardy, M.A.,
LL.D.
Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, M.D., F.R.C.S.,
D.P.H., I.M.S.

The Hon. Mr. Justice H. Holmwood, I.C.S.

E. P. Harrison, Esq., Ph.D. Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott.

LIST OF ORDINARY MEMBERS.

R. = Resident. N.R. = Non-Resident. A. = Absent. L.M. = Life Member. F.M. = Foreign Member.

An Asterisk is prefixed to the names of the Fellows of the Society.

N.B.—Members who have changed their residence since the list was drawn up are requested to give intimation of such a change to the Honorary General Secretary, in order that the necessary alteration may be made in the subsequent edition. Errors or omissions in the following list should also be communicated to the Honorary General Secretary.

Members who are about to leave India and do not intend to return are particularly requested to notify to the Honorary General Secretary whether it is their desire to continue Members of the Society; otherwise, in accordance with Rule 40 of the rules, their names will be removed from the list at

the expiration of three years from the time of their leaving India.

Date of Election.		
1907 June 5.	R.	Abdulla al-Mamun Suhrawardy, The Hon. Dr., M.A., D.Litt., LL.D., Barrister-at-Law. 34, Elliott Road, Calcutta.
1909 May 5.	R.	Abdul-Kalam Mohyuddin Ahmad Azad, Maulavi. 13, McLeod Street, Calcutta.
1909 Mar. 3.	N.R.	Abdul Latif, Syed, Deputy Magistrate. Barisal.
1909 July 7.	R.	Abdur Rahim, Maulavi. 51, Taltolla Lane, Calcutta.
1894 Sept. 27.	N.R.	Abdul Wali, Maulavi, District Sub-Registrar. Purulia.
1895 May 1.	R.	Abdus Salam, Maulavi, M.A., Presidency Magistrate. Calcutta.
1901 April 3.	N.R.	Abhaya Sankar Guha, Extra Assistant Commissioner. Nowgony.
1910 April 6	N.R.	Abraham, E. F., 1.c.s., Assistant Commissioner Multan, Punjab.
1902 June 4.	N.R.	Abu Ahmed Ghuznavi. Mymensingh.
1903 April 1.		Abul Aâs, Maulavi Sayid, Raees and Zemindar. Langar Toli, Bankipore.
1907 April 3.		Abul Faiz Muhammad Abdul Ali, M.A., Deputy Magistrate. Netrokona, Mymensingh.
1904 Sept. 28,	N.R.	Ahmad Hasain Khan, Munshi. Jhelum.
1888 April 4.	R.	Ahmud, Shams-ul-Ulama Maulavi. 3, Maulavi's Lane, Calcutta.
1898 Nov. 2.		Akshaya Kumar Maitra, B.A., B.L. Rajshahi.
1885 Mar. 4.	L.M.	Ali Bilgrami, Sayid, B.A., A.R.S.M., F.G.S. Chudderghaut, Hyderabad.

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Date of Election.	,	74.7
1899 Jan. 4.	NR	Ali Hussain Khan, Nawab. Lucknow.
1903 Oct. 28.	R	Allan, Dr. Alexander Smith, M.B. 3, Esplanade, East, Calcutta. [morah.
1902 Feb. 5.	N.R.	Ambica Churan Sen, I.C.S. (retired). Al-
1898 Feb. 2.	R	Amrita Lal Bose, Dramatist. 9-2, Ram Chandra Maitra's Lane, Calcutta.
1897 Jan. 6.	R.	Amrita Lal Sircar, F.C.S., L.M.S. 51, Sankari- tolla Lane, Oalcutta.
1905 July 5.	R	Amulya Charan Ghosh, Vidyabhusana. 66, Manicktolla Street, Calcutta.
1893 Aug. 31.	N.R.	Anderson, LieutCol. Adam Rivers Steele, B.A., M.B., D.P.H., C.M.Z.S., I.M.S. Chittagong.
1884 Sept. 3.	, A.	Anderson, J. A. Europe.
1904 Sept. 28.	R.	*Annandale, Nelson, D.Sc., C.M.Z.S., Superinten- dent, Indian Museum. <i>Calcutta</i> .
· 1910 Apl. 6.	N.R.	Ascoli, Frank David, i.c.s. Dacca.
1909 May 5.	R.	Ashgar, A. A., Barrister-at-Law. 8, European Asylum Lane, Calcutta.
1904 Jan. 6.	R.	Ashton, Ralph Percy. 4, Fairlie Place, Calcutta.
1902 Aug. 27.	R.	Ashutosh Chaudhuri, Barrister-at-Law. 47, Old Ballygunge, Calcutta.
1886 May 5.	R.	*Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, M.A., D.L., F.R.A.S., F.R.S.E., Judge, High Court. Calcutta.
1904 July 6.	N.R.	
1870 Feb. 2.	L.M.	Baden-Powell, Baden Henry, M.A., C.I.E. Ferlys Lodge, 29, Banbury Road, Oxford, England.
1909 Mar. 3.	R.	Badri Das Goenka, B.A. 31, Banstolla Street, Calcutta.
1891 Mar. 4.	N.R.	Baillie, The Hon. Mr. Duncan Colvin, I.C.S., Member, Board of Revenue, North-West Provinces of Agra and Oudh. <i>Allahabad</i> .
1900 Aug. 29.	R.	Baker, His Honour Sir Edward Norman, K.C.S.I., I.C.S., Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. <i>Calcutta</i> .
1893 Sept. 28.	R.	Banawari Lala Chaudhuri, B.Sc., Edin. 120, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.
1891 Feb. 4.	N.R.	Ban Behari Kapur, Raja, c.s.i. Burdwan.
1869 Dec. 1.	L.M.	Barker, Robert Arnold, M.D., F.G.S. Fairfield, Oxford Road, Reading, Berkshire, England.
1898 Mar. 2.	N.R.	Barnes, Herbert Charles, M.A., I.C.S., Magistrate and Collector. Shillong.
1908 Nov. 4.	N.R.	Barnes, James Hector, B.Sc., F.I.C., F.O.S., Principal, Punjab Agricultural College, and Agricultural Chemist, Punjab Govt. Lyall
•		pur, Punjab.

Date of Election.		
1907 Feb. 6.	NR.	Barrow, John Rothney, Inspector of Schools.
100, 100. 0.	11 10.	Jorhat, Assam.
1902 May 7.	R.	Bartlett, Edward William John. 4, Esplan-
zoos szaj v.		ade, East, Calcutta.
1895 July 3.	L.M.	Beatson-Bell, Nicholas Dodd, B.A., C.I.E.,
		I.C.S. Europe.
1907 Feb. 6.	N.R.	Bell, Charles Alfred, I.C.s. Gangtok, Sikkim.
1909 April 7.	N.R.	Bentley, Charles A., M.B., D.P.H. Jalpaiguri.
1898 June 1.	R.	Bepin Behari Gupta. Hooghly College, Chineura.
1880 April 7.	N.R.	Bepin Chandra Rai. Giridih, Chota Nagpur.
1906 Nov. 7.	N.R.	Bergtheil, Cyril. Sirseah, Mozufferpore.
1876 Nov. 15.		Beveridge, Henry, I.C.S. (retired). Pitfold,
		Shottermill, Haslemere, Surrey, England.
1893 Mar. 1.	N.R.	Bharat Singh, Maharaja Kumara Sirdar, I.c.s.
	21120	(retired). Allahabad.
1903 Feb. 4.	N.R.	Bhawani Das Batra, Rai, M.A., Revenue
	21.20.	Minister, Jammu and Kashmir State. Sri-
		nagar, Kashmir.
1902 Mar. 5.	R.	Binoy Krishna Deb, Raja Bahadur.
		106-1, Grey Street, Calcutta.
1907 Oct. 30.	R.	Birendra Nath Ghosh, L.M.s., Medical Practi-
	1	tioner. 109, College Street, Calcutta.
1910 May 4.	N.R.	Bishop, T. H., M.R.C.S., L.B.C.S., D.P.H. Paksey,
•		Pabna Dist.
1908 Nov. 4.	N.R.	Bisvesvar Bhattacharji, Deputy Magistrate
		and Deputy Collector. Faridpur.
1893 Feb. 1.	N.R.	Bodding, The Revd. P. O. Mahalpahari, vid
		Rampore Haut, Sonthal Parganas.
1910 May 4.	R.	Bolton, William Ferrall. United Service Olub,
		Calcutta.
1909 July 7.	R.	Bonerji, Ratnakrishna Curran. 10/1, Elgin
-		Road, Calcutta.
1895 July 3.	A.	Bonham-Carter, Norman, I.C.S. Europe.
1910 July 6.	N.R.	Botham, Arthur William, I.c.s. Barisal.
1906 Sept. 19.	N.R.	Bradley-Birt, Francis Bradley, I.C.S. Khulna.
1909 Mar. 3.	R.	Brajalal Mukherjee, M.A. 9, Old Post Office
		Street, Calcutta.
1904 July 6.	R.	Brajendra Nath De, M.A., 1.C.S. (retired).
		22, Loudon Street, Calcutta.
1906 Nov. 7.	N.R.	Bramley, Percy, Superintendent of Police.
•		Agra.
1909 April 7.	R.	Briz Mohan Goenka. 24, Banstolla Street,
		Calcutta. [Cooch Behar.
1908 July 1.	N.R.	Brojendra Nath Seal, M.A. Victoria College,
1906 July 4.	R.	Brown, LieutCol. Edwin Harold, M.D., I.M.S.
		(retired). 4, Harrington Street, Calcutta.
1907 July 3.	R.	Brown, John Coggin, B.Sc., F.G.S., F.C.S., Assis-
		tant Superintendent, Geological Survey of
		India. Calcutta. [Art, Calcutta.
1909 Oct. 6.	R.	Brown, Percy, A.R.C.A. Government School of

Date of Emection.		
1905 Mar. 1.	Α.	Brown, William Barclay, 1.c.s. Europe.
	A.	Browning, Colin Harington, M.A. Europe.
1907 June 5.		
1909 Oct. 6.	R.	Brühl, Paul Johannes. Civil Engineering
		College, Sibpur, Howrah. [Calcutta.
19 1 0. Feb 2.	R.	Buchan, W. H., I.C.S. United Service Club,
1901 Sept. 25.	R.	Buchanan, LieutCol. Walter James, I.M.S.
•		United Service Club, Calcutta.
1901 June 5.	R.	*Burkill, Isaac Henry, M.A., Reporter on Eco- nomic Products to the Government of India. Calcutta.
1896 Jan. 8.	N.R.	Burn, The Hon. Mr. Richard, I.C.S. Allahabad.
	N.R.	
1900 May 2.	14.10.	Duccher, Flora, M.D. Lamanpar, Name Lat.
1898 Sept. 30.	R.	Cable, Sir Ernest, Kt. 101/1, Clive Street, Calcutta.
1906 Dec. 5.	R.	Caddy, Adrian, M.D. (Lond.), F.R.C.s. (Eng.),
		D.P.H., R.C.P.S. (Lond.). 2-2, Harrington
		Street, Calcutta.
1007 41 9	D	Colvert Major John Wolfer M. N. D. A. D.
1907 Apl. 3.	R.	Calvert, Major John Telfer, M.B., M.B.C.P.,
300m 3r - 0		1.M.S. 14, Russell Street, Calcutta.
1907 Mar. 6.	L.M.	Camaji Byramji Navroji Cama, B.A., LL.B., I.C.S. Raipur.
19 01 Mar. 6.	F.M.	Campbell, William Edgar Marmaduke, I.C.S.
	1	c/o Messrs. Grindlay & Oo., Parliament Street,
		Westminster, London.
1895 July 3.	R.	Carlyle, The Hon. Mr. Robert Warrand, C.I.E.,
resolved in the same		I.C.S., Secretary to the Government of India,
		Revenue and Agriculture Department. Cal-
1010 M 4		cutta.
1910 May 4.	A.	Carter, Capt. Robert Markham, I.M.S. Europe.
1899 June 7.	N.R.	Chandra Kumar Sarkar. Kawkanik, Moulmein.
1901 Aug. 7.	R.	Chandra Narayan Singh, Rai Bahadur. 82, Lansdowne Road, Calcutta.
1906 Jan. 3.	R.	Chapman, John Alexander. 11, Loudon
	1	Street, Calcutta.
1904 July 6.	Α.	Charles, Albert Pendrill, B.A., I.C.S. Europe.
1909 Feb. 3.	N.R.	
1907 July 3.	A.	Christie, William Alexander Kynock, B.Sc.,
Loor wary o.	Α.	_
1000 N - 0	ND	
1909 Nov. 3	N.R.	Christophers, Major Samuel Richmond, M.B.,
		I.M.S. Research Laboratory, Kasauli.
1906 Nov. 7.	N.R.	
	i	General, Allahabad.
1907 Dec. 4.	Α.	Cohen, Rachel Nathaniel, M.B., F.R.C.S. Eu-
	1	rope.
1910 Jan. 5.	A.	Coldstream, Major W. M., R.E. Europe.
1906 July 4.	N.R.	
Love outy 4.	11.10.	
1000 1 1		L.R.C.P. (Lond.), I.M.S. Gaya.
1908 Jan. 1.	A.	Conway-Poole, Capt. Ivan Maxwell, Indian
•	'	Army. Europe.

Contract Manager	·	
Date of Election.		
1910 July 6.	R.	Conyngham, Major G. P. Lenox, R.E., United Service Olub, Calcutta.
1908 Nov. 4.	N.R.	
1903 Aug. 26	R.	Copleston, The Most Revd. Dr. Reginald Stephen, D.D. Lord Bishop of Calcutta.
1898 June 1.	F.M.	Cordier, Dr. Palmyr. 20, Boulavard Gambetta,
1907 July 3.	R.	20, Hanoi (Tonkin), French Indo-Ohina. Cotter, Gerald de Purcell, Assistant Superintendent, Geological Survey of India. Calcutta. [Street, Calcutta.
1908 Jan. 1.	R.	
1901 June 5.	A.	Crake, Dr. Herbert Milverton. 15, Park Crawford, LieutCol. Dirom Grey, I.M.s. Europe.
1876 Mar. 1.	F.M.	Crawfurd, James, B.A., I.C.S. (retired). Thorn-wood, Uddington, Lanarkshire, Scotland.
1887 Aug. 25.	R.	Criper, William Risdon, F.C.S., F.I.C., A.R.S.M. Konnagar, E.I.R.
1895 July 3.	R.	Cumming, John Ghest, I.C.S. 8, Elysium Row, Calcutta.
1905 July 5.	N.R.	Cunningham, John Arthur, B.A. Purulia.
1908 Sept. 2.	A.	Cunningham, John Richard, M.A. Europe.
1873 Dec. 3.	F.M.	Dames, Mansel Longworth, 1.c.s. (retired). Algeria, Enfield, Middlesex, England.
1885 Nov. 4.	R.	Damodar Das Barman. 55, Clive Street, Cal- cutta.
1904 Aug. 3.	N.R.	Dattalraya Balwant Parasnis. Satara.
1910 Jan. 5.	R.	David, David A. 55, Free School Street, Calcutta.
1906 Dec. 5.	Λ.	Deare, Major Benjamin Hobbs, M.R.C.S. (Eng.), I.R.C.P. (Lond.), D.P.H. (Cantab), I.M.S. Europe.
1904 Sept. 28.	N.R.	DeCourcy, William Bleunerhasset. Silchar P.O., Oachar.
1906 Dec. 5.	N.R.	Dentith, Arthur William, I.C.S. Cooch Behar.
1909 Mar, 3.	R.	Deva Prasad Sarbadhikari, The Hon. Mr., M.A., B.L. 13, Jeliapara Lane, Calcutta.
1910 Dec. 7.	N.R.	Devendra Kumar Banerji. Dacca College, Dacca.
1910 Dec. 7.	R.	Dharmapala, The Anagarika Hevavitarana, 46, Beniapuker Lane, Oalcutta.
1910 May 4.	LM.	Dhavle, Sankara Balaji, t.c.s. Gulzerbagh.
1898 Jan. 5.	R.	Dods, William Kane. Agent, Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation. <i>Calcutta</i> .
1906 Dec. 5.	N.R.	Donnan, Major William, Indian Army, Examiner of Ordnance Factory Accounts in India. Lucknow.
1909 Nov. 3.	N.R.	Donovan, Major Charles, M.D., I.M.S. General Hospital, Madras.
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Date of mlection.		
1902 July 2.	R.	Doxey, Frederick. 9, Queen's Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta. [Jhansi.
1909 Aug. 4.	N.R.	Drake-Brockman, Digby Livingstone, I.c.s.
1892 Sept. 22.		Drury, Lieut. Col Francis James, I.M.S. Medical College, Calcutta.
1905 April 5.	N.R.	Dunnett, James Macdonald, I.C.S., Settlement Officer. Ludhiana.
1905 May 3.	R.	Dwarkanath Chakravarti, M.A., B.L., Vakil, High Court. Calcutta.
1906 Nov. 7.	N.R.	Eadie, Lieut. John Inglis. 97th Deccan Infantry, Jubbulpur.
1907 Sept. 25.	A.	Eakins, Olin, M.D. Europe.
1900 July 4.	R.	Earle, The Hon. Mr. Archdale, I.C.S. 12, Loudon Street, Calcutta.
1903 May 6.	N.R.	Edwards, Walter Noel. Sootea P.O., Tezpur, Assam.
1910 May 6.	N.R.	Edwards, Lieut. W. M., Indian Army. Barian, Murree Hills.
1910 April 6.	R.	Elmes, Dr. Cecil H. 25, Park Street, Calcutta.
1910 Jan 5.	R.	Farquhar, J. N., M.A. 7, Chowringhee, Calcutta.
1901 Mar. 6.	N.R.	Fergusson, John Carlyle, I.C.S. Saharanpur.
1904 Aug. 3.	R.	Fermor, Lewis Leigh, A.R.S.M., D.Sc., F.G.S., Assistant Superintendent, Geological Survey of India. <i>Oalcutta</i> .
1908 Sept. 2.	N.R.	Fida Ali, Syed, Arrah.
1906 Dec. 5.	R.	Finck, Herman H. G., M.D., Surgeon to the Consulate-General for Germany. 19, Camac Street, Calcutta.
1906 Oct. 31.		Finlow, Robert Steel, Fibre Expert to the Govt. of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Pusa, Tithoot.
1907 Mar. 6.	N.R.	Firminger, Revd. Walter Kelly, M.A., B.D., F.R.G.S. Shillong.
1910 Sept. 7.	N.R.	Fortescue, Capt. Archer Irvine, R.A.M.C. 50, Cantonments, Cawnpore.
1906 Dec. 5.	R.	Foster, Captain Henry Bertram, I.M.S. Presidency General Hospital, Calcutta.
1904 May 4.	N.R.	Framjee Jamasjee Thanawala. 90, Cawasjee Patel Street, Fort, Bombay.
1910 April 6.	N.R.	Francis, Lieut. Reginald Frankland, Isdian Army. Jullunder, Punjab.
1905 Jan. 4.	A.	Fraser, Sir Andrew Henderson Leith, M.A., LL.D., K.C.S.I. Europe.
1910 Nov. 2.	N.R.	Friend-Pereira, Joseph Ernest. Goalpara, Assam.
. 1903 Mar. 4.	R.	Gage, Captain Andrew Thomas, M.A., M.B., B.Sc., F.L.S., I.M.S. Royal Botanic Garden, Sibpur, Howrah.

Date of Election.		
1893 Jan. 11.	N.R.	Gait, Edward Albert, C.I.E., I.C.S. Simla.
1908 Feb. 5.	N.R.	Gardener-Brown, John Gerald Gardener, M.A.
2000 100. 0.	11.10.	Muir Central College, Allahabad.
1907 Sept. 25.	N.R.	Gibbon, Captain Charles Monk. 89th Royal Irish Fusiliers. United Service Club, Simla.
1906 Feb. 7.	R.	Girindra Kumar Sen. 100, Grey Street, Cal-
1908 Feb. 5.	R.	Girindra Nath Mukhopadhyaya, B.A., M.B. 80, Russa Road, North, Bhowanipur, Calcutta.
1902 Feb. 5.	R.	Girish Chandra Ghosh, Dramatist. 13, Bose- para Lane, Calcutta.
1889 June 5.	N.R.	Girjanath Roy, Maharaja. Dinagepore.
1908 Feb. 5.	R.	Gopal Chandra Chatterji, M.B. Medical Col-
		lege, Calcutta.
1909 Jan. 6.	R.	Gourlay, William Robert, I.C.S. 8, Elysium Row, Calcutta.
1901 Aug. 28.	N.R.	Govinda Das. Durgakund, Benares City.
1909 Jan. 6.	R.	Govinda Lall Mukherjee. 9, Old Post Office Street, Calcutta.
1910 Sept. 7.	R.	Gravely, Frederic Henry, M.Sc., Asstt. Supdt., Indian Museum. Calcutta.
1905 May 3.	R.	Graves, Henry George, A.R.S.M. 2, Bankshall Street, Calcutta.
1907 June 5.	R.	Green, LieutCol. Charles Robert Mortimer, M.D., F.R.C.S., I.M.S. 6, Harrington Street, Calcuttu.
1910 Mar. 2.	N.R.	Greig, Major Edward David Wilson, M.B., I.M.S. Kasauli, Punjab.
1910 Sept. 7.	R.	Grey, Major William George, Indian Army. 4, Park Street, Calcutta.
1900 Dec. 5.	L.M.	Grieve, James Wyndham Alleyne, Deputy Conservator of Forests. Darjeeling.
1910 April 6	R.	Grubl, D. E. 1, Orooked Lane, Calcutta.
1904 Jan. 6.	N.R.	Gulab Shanker Dev Sharman, F.T.S., M.B.A.S.,
		Private Secretary to H.H. the Maharani Sahiba of Bettiah. Allahabad.
1901 Mar. 6.	N.R.	Habibur Rahman Khan, Maulavi, Races. Bhikanpur, Dt. Aligarh.
1892 Jan. 6.	F.M.	
1907 Aug. 7.	N.R.	Haines, Henry Haselfoot, F.C.s., F.L.s. Nagpur.
1909 Nov. 3.	R.	Hale, Alexander, M.I.C.E.I. 2, Grand Trunk Road, Howrah.
1908 June 3:	R.	Hallowes, Kenneth Alexander Knight, B.A.,
		A.R.S.M., F.G.S., Assistant Superintendent, Geological Survey of India. Calcutta.
1904 Sept. 28.	A.	Hallward, Norman Leslie. Europe.
1885 Feb. 4.	R.	*Haraprasad Shastri, Mahamahopadhyaya,
		M.A. 12/1/4, Pataldanga Street, Calcutta.

Date of Mection	• 1	
1907 Feb. 6	N. R.	Hare, His Honour Sir Lancelot, K.C.S.I., I.C.S.,
		Lieutenant-Governor of Eastern Bengal and
		Assam. Shillong.
1904 Jan. 6	. R.	Harendra Krishna Mukerjee, M.A. 54, San-
1000 T 0	D	karipara Road, Calcutta.
1903 June 3	. R.	Harinath De, M.A., Librarian, Imperial Library. Calcutta.
1902 Dec. 3	N.R.	
1902 Feb. 5		Harniman, B. G. 15, Ballygunge, Calcutta.
1906 Dec. 5		Harris, Lieut. G. 56th Infantry, F.F., Hanyu.
1906 July 4		Harris, Col. George Francis Angelo, M.D.,
	_	F.R.C.P., I.M.S. 25, Park Street, Calcuttu.
1908 April 1	. R.	Harrison, Edward Philip, Ph.D. Presidency
1010 16 4	N D	College, Calcutta.
1910 May 4	N.A.	Harvey, Capt. William Frederick, 1.M.S. Pasteur Institute, Kasauli.
1884 Mar. 5	T.M	
TOO E MAN. D.		G.C.I.E. Murshidabad.
1897 Feb. 3	. R.	Hayden, Henry Herbert, B.A., B.E., F.G.S.,
	4.	Director, Geological Survey of India. Cal-
	14.	cutta.
1906 Dec. 5.	R.	Hayward, Major William Davey, M.B., I.M.S.
100F T 1 F	37.73	Clyde Row, Hastings, Calcutta.
1905 July 5.	N.R.	Hemchandra Gossani, Extra Assistant Com-
1905 May 3.	N.R.	missioner. Tezpur.
1000 May 0.	121.20.	Litterateur. Prasad Lodge, Changalbha
		P.O., Jessore.
1907 Nov. 6.	N.R.	Hepper, Captain Lionel Leen's. Royal Artil-
		lery, Maymyo, Burma.
1908 June 3.	R.	Herron, Alexander Macmillagen, B.sc., Asst.
1908 June 3.	R.	Supdt., Geological Survey of m India. Calcutt
1900 June 5.	16.	Hira Lall Bose, Rai Bahadunji, L.M.s. 25/2, Mott's Lane, Calcutta.
1908 April 1.	N.R.	Hirst, Capt. Frederick Chri, stian. Indian
		Army, Shillong.
1906 Dec. 5.	R.	Hirst, Reginald John, Distantet Superinten-
1001 7 1 1	13.36	dent of Police. 15, Camallec Street, Calcutta.
1891 July 1.	F.M.	*Holland, Sir Thomas Healiry, K.C.I.E., D.Sc.,
		A.R.C.S., F.G.S., F.R.S. W. Testwood, Alderley Edge, Cheshire, England.
1908 July 1.	R.	Holmwood, The Hon. Mr Justice Herbert,
		1.c.s., Judge, High Court. 22, The affire Road,
	ĺ	Oalcutta.
1910 Jan. 5.	R.	Hope, Geoffroy D., B.Sc., Ph.D. Indian Moaluse-
1000 77 1 0		um, Calcutta.
1898 Feb. 2.		*Hooper, David, F.C.S. 1, Sudder Street, Cal-
1909 May 5.	NR	Cutta. Horovitz, Josef, Ph.D. M.A.O. College, A.L.
2000 may 0.	41.10.	garh.
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Date of Election.	1	
1901 Dec. 4.	R.	Hossack, William Cardiff, M.D., D.P.H. 3, Loudon Street, Calcutta.
1873 Jan. 2.	L.M.	Houstoun, George L., F.G.S. Johnstone Castle, Renfrewshire, Scotland.
1906 May 2.	N.R.	Howell, Evelyn Berkeley, B.A., I.C.S. Ajmir.
1905 July 5.	N.R.	Humphries, Edgar de Montfort, B.A., I.C.S., Settlement Officer. Pertabgarh.
1908 June 3.	A	Hutchinson, C. M. Europe. [Road, Calcutta.
1909 Mar. 3.	R.	Indu Madhab Mullick, M.A., M.D. 70, Harrison
1906 Dec. 5.	N.R.	Jack, James Charles, i.c.s., Settlement Officer, Eastern Bengal and Assam. Faridpur.
1904 Jan. 6.	N.R.	Jackson, Victor Herbert, M.A. Patna College, Bankipur.
1908 Nov. 4.	F.M.	Jacob, Sydney Montague, I.C.s. O/o Messrs. H. S. King & Co., Pall Mall, London.
1898 Mar. 2.	N.R.	Jadunath Sarkar. Patna College, Bankipur.
1903 July 1.	L.M.	Jagadindranath Roy, Maharaja Bahadur. 6, Lansdowne Road, Calcutta.
1895 Mar. 6.	R.	Jagadis Chandra Bose, M.A., D.Sc., C.I.E. Presidency College, Calcutta.
1907 Dec. 4.	R.	James, Henry Rosher, M.A., Bengal Education Service, Principal, Presidency College. Cal- cutta.
1895 Aug. 29.	N.R.	Jatindranath Rai Chaudhuri, M.A., B.L., Zemindar. Taki, Jessore.
1907 Sept. 25.	N.R.	Jenkins, Owen Francis, I.c.s., Offg. Joint Magistrate. Budaon, U.P.
1889 Jan. 2.	R.	Jogendra Chandra Ghose, M.A.,B.L., Pleader, High Court. 25, Hurrish Chunder Mooker- jee Road, Bhowanipore, Calcutta.
1896 Mar. 4.	R.	Jogendra Nath Das-Gupta, B.A. (Oxon), Barrister-at-Law. Hughli College, Chinsura.
1902 May 7.	R.	Jogendra Nath Sen, Vidyabhusana, M.A. 31, Prasanna Kumar Tagore's Street, Oalcutta.
1910 April 6.	R.	Johnston, J. C. R. Ü/o Messrs, Grindlay & Co., Calcutta.
1908 June 3.	R.	Jones, Herbert Cecil, A.R.S.M., A.R.C.S., F.G.S., Asst. Supdt., Geological Survey of India. Calcutta.
1906 July 4.	R.	Jones, LieutCol. John Lloyd, M.B. (Dub.), M.R.C.S. (Lond.), D.P.H. (Cantab), F.C.A., I.M.S. United Service Club, Calcutta.
1908 Dec. 2.	N.R.	Jordon, LieutColonel J., I.M.S. Monghyr.
1899 Sep. 29.	R.	Jotindra Nath Mukharji, B.A., Solicitor. 3, Old Post Office Street, Calcutta.
1908 Sept. 23.	N.R.	Jyotiprakas Nande, Lala, Zemindar. Burdwan.
1909 Aug. 4.	N.R.	Jyotis Chandra Bhattacharjee, M.A., B.L.
		Purneah.

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Date of Election.		I Service of the serv
1904 Mar. 4.	N.R.	Kamlanand Singh, Kumar. Srinagar Raj, Srinagar P.O., Purneah District.
1905 May 3.	R.	Kashi Prasad Jayaswal, Barat-Law, High
1877 Aug. 30.	R.	Kedar Nath Dutt. 1, Sikdarpara Lane, Cal-
1910 May 4.	R.	Kemp, S., B.A. Senior Assistant Superintendent, Indian Museum. Calcutta.
1882 Mar. 1.	N.R.	Kennedy, Pringle, M.A., B.L., Vakil. Mozaffer- pur.
1906 Aug. 1.	R.	Kennedy, William Willoughby, M.A., M.D., D.P.H., M.R.S.C., L.R.C.P. 36, Chowringhee, Calcutta.
1906 Sept. 19.	R.	Kesteven, Charles Henry, Solicitor to Govern- ment. 26, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta.
1909 Oct. 6.	R.	Khaliluddin Ahmed, Dr. 36, Taltolla Lane, Calcutta.
1909 April 7.	N.R.	Kilner, John Newport, M.B., L.R.C.S., L.R.C.P. Adra, Manbhum.
1908 Feb. 5.	Α.	King, Capt. George, M.B., I.M.S. Europe.
1910 Feb. 2.	R.	Kingdon, Thomas Hanson. 13, Pretoria Street, Calculta.
1895 Sept. 19.	N.R.	Kiran Chandra De, B.A., I.C.s., Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies, Eastern Ben- gal and Assam. Shillong.
1910 Mar. 2.	R.	Kirkpatrick, W. Chartered Bank Buildings, Calcutta.
1904 May 4.	A.	Knox, Kenneth Neville, 1.c.s. Europe.
1909 Jan. 6.	R.	Kshitindranath Tagore, B.A. Howrah.
1896 July 1.	R.	Küchler, The Hon. Mr. George William, M.A., Director of Public Instruction, Bengal. Oal- cutta.
1910 Sept. 7.	N.R.	Kumar Sarat Roy. Dayarampur, Rajshahi.
1894 July 4.	N.R.	Kushal Pal Singh, Raja, M.A. Narki.
1895 Aug. 29.	1	Lachmi Narayan Singh, M.A., B.L., Pleader, High Court, Calcutta.
1887 May 4.	L.M.	Cambridge, Massachusetts, U.S. America.
1889 Mar. 6.	L.M.	11, Tivoli Terrace, S., Kingstown, Co. Publin, Ireland.
1910 Nov. 2.		Law, H. D. Graves, I.C.S. Gopalganj, Saran.
1909 Jan. 6.	١.	Leake, A. Martin, F.R.C.S., V.C. 14, Garden Reach Road, Calcutta.
1902 July 2.	N.R	Leake, Henry Martin, M.A., F.L.S., Economic Botanist to the Government of United Provinces. Campur.
1909 April 7	.N.R	

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Date of Election.		
1889 Nov. 6.	R.	Lee, William A., F.R.M.S. 38, Strand Road, Calcutta.
1909 Mar. 3.	Ř.	LeQuesne, Rev. W. R. The Parsonage, Hastings, Calcutta.
1902 Oct. 29.	R.	Lewes, A. H. 25, Mangoe Lane, Calcutta.
1908 Feb. 5.	N.R.	Lindesay, Major Victor Edward Hugh, M.B., I.M.S. Darbhanga.
1907 Dec. 4.	N.R.	Lindsay, James Hamilton, M.A., I.C.S. Dhan- baid.
1910 Mar. 2.	R.	Lister, Capt. A. E. J., I.M.s. Fort William, Calcutta.
1889 Feb. 6.	N.R.	Little, Charles, M.A. Patna College, Bankipur.
1907 Dec. 4.	N.R.	Little, James Henry, Assistant Master, Nawab Bahadur's Institution. Murshidabad.
1907 Mar. 6,	R.	Lloyd, Captain Richard Ernest, M.B., B.Sc., I M.S. 10, Middleton Street, Calcutta.
1909 Nov. 3.	A.	Löffler, Emanuel Mano. Europe.
1906 Oct. 31.	N.R.	
1910 April 6.	N.R.	Ludwig, Eugen. Gudur.
1902 July 2.	R.	Luke, James, Journalist. 98, Clive Street, Calcutta.
1905 Aug. 2.	N.R.	Lukis, The Hon. Surgeon-General Charles Pardey, c.s.i., M.B., F.R.C.s., I.M.S. Simla.
1870 April 7.	L.M.	Lyman, B. Smith. 708, Locust Street, Philadelphia, U.S. America.
1896 Mar. 4.	A.	MacBlaine, Frederick, I.C.S. Europe.
1905 Aug. 2.	A.	McCay, Captain David, M.B., I.M.S. Europe.
1907 Aug. 7.	N.R.	McIntosh, William, Agent, Bank of Bengal. Hyderabad.
1907 April 3.	N.R.	Mackelvie, Captain Maxwell, I.M.S. Durbhanga.
1906 April 4.	A.	Mackenzie, Evan, Church of Scotland. Europe.
1893 Jan. 11.	L.M.	Maclagan, Edward Douglas, M.A., I.C.S. \bar{C}/o Messrs. H. S. King & Co., 9, Pall Mall, London.
1899 Mar. 1.	N.R.	McMinn, Charles W., B.A., I.C.S. (retired). Juth Tal, Bhim P.O., Kumaon.
1891 Feb. 4.	R.	Macpherson, Duncan James, M.A., C.I.E., I.C.S. Chinsura.
1902 April 2.	N.R.	Maddox, Major Ralph Henry, I.M.S. Darjeeling.
1893 Jan. 11.	L.M.	Madho Rao Scindia Alijah, Bahadur, Colonel, His Highness Maharajah Sir, G.C.S.t, G.C.V.O., A.D.C, LL.D., Maharajah of Gwalior.
1907 July 3.	N.R.	Jai Bilas, Gwalior.
1895 Aug. 29.	R.R.	Mahendra Nath De, M.A., B.Sc. Habigunye. Mahmud Gilani, Shams-ul-Ulama Shaikh.
	10.	23, Lower Chitpur Road, Calcutta.

Date of Mection.	4 1 94	
-		T. I Hard Taileton Olet Pere
1901 July 6.	N.R.	Malyon, Lieut. Frank Hailstone. 21st Pun- jabis, Bannu.
1909 Mar. 3.	R.	Manmatha Nath Chatterjee, M.B. 295/1, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.
1906 June 6.	R.	Manmatha Nath Mitra, Kumar. 34, Sham- pukur Street, Oalcutta.
1908 Mar. 4.	R.	Manmatho Nath Moitry, Landholder. Serampore.
1901 June 5.	N.R.	Mann, Harold Hart, D.Sc., M.Sc., F.L.S., Principal, Agricultural College. Poona.
1899 Aug. 30.	N.R.	Mannu Lal, Civil Surgeon. Barabanki.
1905 Dec. 6.	F.M.	Marsden, Edmund, B.A., F.R.G.S. 12, Ellerdale Road, Hampstead, London.
1902 May 7.	A .	Marshall, John Hubert, M.A. Europe.
1909 Mar. 3.	R.	Matilal Ganguli, Rai Bahadur. Currency Office, Calcutta.
1892 April 6.	R.	Maynard, LieutCol. Frederic Pinsent, M.B.,
		D.P.H., FR.C.S., I.M.S., Professor of Ophthal-
1905 Feb. 1.	R.	mic Surgery, Medical College. Calcutta. Megaw, Captain John Wallace Dick, N.B., I.M.S.
1900 Feb. 1.	It.	Presidency General Hospital, Calcutta.
1895 July 3.	N.R.	Melitus, Hon. Mr. Paul Gregory, C.I.E., I.C.S. Shillong.
884 Nov. 5	R.	Middlemiss, Charles Stewart, B.A., F.G.S., Super- intendent, Geological Survey of India. Cal- cutta.
1905 Dec. 6.	R.	Midhut Mohamed Hossain Khan. 8, Golam
1000 Dec. 0.	10.	Sobhan's Lane, Calcutta.
.884 Sep 3.	R.	Miles, William Harry. 7, Church Lane, Calcutta.
1904 April 6.	A .	Miller, The Hon. Mr. John Ontario, C.S.I., I.C.S. Europe.
18 9 8 April 6.	N.R.	Milne, Major Charles John Robertson, M.B., I.M.S. Berhampur.
1909 July 7.	R.	Milne, William Stanley, I.C.S. 3, Loudon Street, Calcutta.
1906 Mar. 7.	N.R.	Milsted, Walter Percy Spencer. Boys' High School, Allahabad.
1908 Jan. 1.	N.R.	Moberly, Aithur Norman, M.A., I.C.s. Sambal- pur.
1885 June 3.	N.R.	Mohammad Naemullah, Maulavi. Bijnor.
1880 Aug. 4.	L.M.	Mohanlall Vishnulall Pandia, Pandit, F.T.s. Muttra.
1908 Mar. 4.	A.	Mollison, James. Europe.
1901 Aug. 7.	N.R.	Molony, Edmund Alexander, I.C.s. Gorakhpur.
1890 June 4.	R.	*Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L., Bengal Provincial Civil Service. 14, Palmer's Basaar Road, Balliaghatta, Calcutta.
1895 July 3.	N.R.	Monohan, Francis John, I.c.s., Commissioner, Assam Valley District. Shillong.

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Date of Election.	Ī	
1910 Feb. 2.	R.	Monohar Lal, M.A. Barrackpore.
1906 Dec. 5.	N.R.	More, Lieut James Carmichael. 51st Sikke F.F., Bannu.
1910 April 6.	N.R.	Morrison, Capt. John, I.M.S. Sibsagar, Assam.
1906 Dec. 5.	N.R.	Morton, Captain Sidney. 24th Punjabis, Meerut.
19 0 8 Dec. 2.	R.	Moses, Capt. Owen St. John, M.D., F.R.C.S., r.M.S., Resident Physician, Medical College, Calcutta.
1909 Nov. 3.	N.R.	Mrityunjoy Roychaudhury. Shyampur P.O., Rungpur.
1906 July 4.	A	Mulvany, Major John, I.M.s. Europe.
1905 Mar. 1.	R.	Muralidhar Banerjee. Sanskrit College, Calcutta.
1906 Dec. 5.		Murphy, Captain Charles Cecil Rowe, 30th Punjabis, Jhansi.
1906 Dec. 5.	R.	Murray, Captain John George Patrick, I.M.s. Medical College, Calcutta.
1910 Nov. 2.	N.R.	Murray, William Alfred, B.A. (Cantab), M.R., C.M. Chittagong.
1908 Sept. 23.	N.R.	Muzaffur Ali Khan Bahadur, Syed, Zeminder and Rais. Jausath, Dist. Muzaffarnagar.
1894 Sep. 27.	R.	Nagendra Nath Basu. 20, Kentapuker Lane, Baybazaar, Calcutta.
1907 Jan. 2.	N.R.	Nasir Ali, Khan Bahadur, Mir, Superintendent, North India Salt Revenue. Farrashkhana, Delhi.
1907 Jan. 2.	N.R.	Nasir Hosein Khan, S., Landholder. Patna City.
1904 Dec. 7.	N.R.	Nathan, Robert, I.c.s., Commissioner, Dacca Division. Dacca.
1980 Feb. 5.	A.,	Nesfield, Capt. Vincent Blumhardt, F.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., I.M.S. Europe.
1901 Mar. 6.	N.R.	Nevill, Henry Rivers, 1.c.s., Editor, District Gazetteers, United Provinces. Allahabad.
1910 May 4.	R.	Newman, Major Ernest Alan Robert Newman, 1.M.s. Campbell Medical Hospital, Calcutta.
1909 Mar. 3.		Nilmani Chakravarti, M.A. Presidency College, Calcutta.
1889 Aug. 29.	L.M.	Nimmo, John Duncan. C/o Messrs. Walter Duncan & Co., 137, West George Street, Glasgow.
1887 May 4.	R.	Nobinchand Bural, Solicitor. 10, Old Post Office Street, Calcutta.
1906 Dec. 5.	N.R.	Norman, Henry Campbell, M.A. Queen's College, Benares.
1908 Feb. 5.	R.	Nott, LieutCol. Arthur Holbrook, M.D., I.M.S. Howrah.

Date of Election.	7	
1901 June 5	. R.	Nundolal Dey. Chinsura.
1900 Dec. 5	F.M.	O'Connor, Major William Frederick Travers, c.i.e., Royal Artillery. H. B. M.'s Consulate- General, Meshed, Persia.
1906 Dec. 5	R.	O'Kinealy, LieutCol. Frederick, M.R.C.S. (Eng.), L.R.C.P. (Lond.), 1.M.S. Govt. House, Calcutta.
1909 Jan. 6.	R.	Oldham, The Hon. Mr. Charles Evelyn Arbuthnot William, I.C.S. 22, Theatre Road, Calcutta.
1910 May 4.	R.	Oldham, Major Benjamin Curvey, I.M.s. 31/1, Judge's Court Road, Calcutta.
1905 May 3.	N.R.	Ollenbach, Alfred Jumes, B.A., I.C.S. Khond-mals, Phulbani, Orissa.
1905 Nov. 1.	R.	O'Malley, Lewis Sydney Steward, B.A., I.C.S. United Service Club, Calcutta.
1892 Mar. 2.	L.M.	Ooday Pratab Singh, Raja, c.s.t., Raja of Bhinga. Bhinga.
1909 Oct. 7.	R.	Ordhendhu Kumar Ganguli. 12, Ganguli's Lane, Calcutta.
1906 Aug. 1.		Osburn, Captain, Arthur C., M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., (Lond.), R.A.M.C. Europe.
1908 Aug. 5.	N.R.	Owens, Capt. Terence Francis, 1.M.S., Chemical Examiner to the Government of Burma. Rangoon.
1909 April 7.	N.R.	
1907 July 3.	R.	Page, William Walter Keightley, Solicitor. 10, Old Post Office Street, Calcutta.
1909 Dec. 1.	R.	Panchanan Ghose, M.A. 65/4, Lansdowne Road, Calcutta.
1892 Dec. 7.	R.	Panchanan Mukhopadhyaya. 45, Bechoo Chatterji's Street, Calcutta.
1907 Feb. 6.	R.	Panioty, John Emanuel, L.R.C.P. (Lond.), L.R.C.P. & s. (Edin.). 19, Royd Street, Calcutta.
1901 Aug. 28		Panton, Edward Brooks Henderson, B.A., 1.C.S District and Sessions Judge. Burdwan.
1899 Aug. 2.	R.	Peake, Charles William, M.A., Meteorological Reporter to the Government of Bengal. Calcutta.
1907 Dec. 4.	R.	Pearse, Thomas Frederick, M.D., F.R.C.S., M.R.C.P., D.P.H., Health Officer. Calcutta.
1906 Dec. 5.	Α.	Peart, Captain Charles Lubé. 106th Hazara Pioneers. Europe.
1888 June 6.		Pennell, Aubray Percival, B.A., Barrister-at- Law. Rangoon.
1910 April 6.	N.R.	Penton, Capt. Bertie Cyriel. 25th Punjabis, Multan, Punjab.

Date of Election.	•	
1881 Aug. 25.	R.	Percival, Hugh Melvile, M.A. 14, Park Street, Calcutta.
1910 April 6.	N.R.	Pestonji Sorabji Patuck, I.C.s. Wardha.
1877 Aug. 1	N.R.	Peters, LieutCol. Charles Thomas, M.B.,
1906 April 4.	R.	I.M.S. (retired). Dinajpur. Petrocochino, Leonidar. 231, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.
1907 Feb. 6	N.R.	Petrie, David, Assistant Superintendent, Pun- jab Police. Hungu.
1900 May 2.	R.	Phani Bhusan Mukerji, B.Sc. 57, Jhowtola Road, Ballygunge, Calcutta.
1889 Nov. 6.	L.M.	*Phillott, LieutColonel Douglas Craven. Indian Army. 54, Parliament Street, London.
1906 Mar. 7.	A	Phra Maha Chandima. Europe.
1904 June 1.	R.	Pilgrim, Guy Ellcock, B.Sc., F.G.S., Assistant Superintendent, Geological Survey of India. Calcutta.
1908 Jan. 1.	R.	Pilgrim, LieutCol. Herbert Wilson, M.B., F.R.C.S., I.M.S. Presidency General Hospital, Calcutta.
1904 Mar. 4.	A.	Pim, Arthur W., 1.c.s. Europe.
1910 Aug. 3.	R.	Podamraj. 9, Joggomohan Mullick's Lane, Calcutta.
1906 May 2.	N.R.	Prabhat Chandra Borua, Raja. Gauripur, Assam.
1899 Aug. 29.	N.R.	Prabhu Narain Singh, Bahadur, H.H. The Maharaja Sir, G.C.I.E., Maharaja of Benares. Ramnagar Fort, Benares.
1907 Mar. 6.	R.	Prafulla Chundra Ghosh, M.A. 27/3, Boita- khana Bazar Road, Calcutta.
1890 Mar. 5.	R.	*Prafulla Chandra Ray, D.Sc., Professor, Presidency College. Calcutta.
1880 Nov. 3.	N.R.	Pramatha Nath Bose, B.Sc., F.G.S. Ranchi.
1901 April 3.	R.	Pramatha Nath Mullick, Zemindar. 7, Prasonno Kumar Tagore's Street, Calcutta.
1910 June 1.	R.	Pramatha Nath Mukerjee, M.A. 9, St. James's Square.
1887 May 4.	R.	Prasanna Kumar Ray, D.Sc. (Lond. and Edin.). 7, Ballygunge Circular Road, Calcutta.
1869 Feb. 3.	N.R.	Pratapa Chandra Ghosha, B.A. Vindyachal.
1910 Sept. 7	R.	Preston, Eyre Loftus. United Service Club, Oalcutta.
1906 Aug. 1.	N.R	Price, Charles Stanley. Victoria Boys' School, Kurseong.
1909 April 7.	N.R.	Prithwipal Singh, Raja. Talukdar of Suraj- pur, District Barabanki. Oudh.
1898 April 6.	R.	Prodyat Coomar Tagore, Maharaja Sir, kt Pathuriaghatta, Calcutta. [Calcutta
1907 Sept. 25.	R.	Promode Prakas Chatterjee. 8, Dixon Lane

Date of Election.	1	
1907 Jan, 2	N.R.	Pulley, Lieut. Henry Cuthbert. 12th Pioneers, Jhansi.
1906 Mar. 7	R.	Puran Chand Nahar. Mott's Lane, Calcutta.
1908 Mar. 4.	R.	Quinlan, Dr. D. 6, Strand Road, Howrah.
1902 April 2.	R.	Rajchunder Chunder, Attorney-at-Law. 2, Old Post Office Street, Calcutta.
1902 Mar. 5.	R.	Rajendra Chandra Sastri, Rai Bahadur, M.A., Bengali Translator to the Government of Bengal. <i>Ualcutta</i> .
1898 May 4.	R.	Rajendra Nath Mookerjee. 20, Beadon Street, Calcutta.
1907 Jan. 2.	R.	Rakhal Das Banerjee, M.A. 45/4, Simla Street, Calcutta.
1910 Feb. 2.	N.R.	Ram Poplai. Sri. Kabul Gate, Delhi.
1901 Jan. 2.	N.R.	Ramavatar Pande, B.A., I.C.S., District Judge. Azimyarh.
1893 May 3.	N.R.	Ram Chandra Bhanj Deb, Maharaja Sri, Chief of Maurbhanj. Baripada P.O., Balasore.
1910 April 6.	R.	Ramakanta Bhattacharyya. 6/51, Padda- puker Roud, Oalcutta.
1889 Nov. 6.	N.R.	Rameshwara Singh Bahadur, H. H. The Hon. Maharaja, K.C.I.E. Durbhanga.
1 879 April 7.	N.R.	Ram Saran Das, Rai Bahadur, M.A., Manager, Oudh Commercial Bank, Ld. <i>Fysabad</i> .
1908 Feb. 5.	N.R.	Randle, Herbert Neil, B.A. Muir Central College, Allahabad.
1909 July 7.	N.R.	Rangnath Khunraj Bazuz. Girgaon, Bombay.
1908 July 1		Ranganathasvami Aryavaraguru, S. P. V. Arshya Library, Vizagapatam.
1905 Jan. 4.	N.R.	Rankin, James Thomas, 1.c.s. Shillong.
1907 Aug. 7.	i	Ranking, Lieut. James, H. B. M.'s Consul, Ahwz Arabistan. Persia.
1904 Mar. 4.	F.M.	Rapson, E. J. 8, Mortimer Road, Cambridge.
1905 May 3.		Richardson, Thomas William, I.C.S., Dist. and Sess. Judge, 24-Pargs. Calcutta.
1908 Sept. 2.		Ridsdale, Rev. Arthur Cyril. The Parsonage, Howrah.
1908 Feb. 5.	İ	Rigo-de-Riglie, Alceste Carlo. O/o Imperial Post Office, Kweit-hua-ching, North Shansi Province, China.
1907 Feb. 6.	1	Robertson, Major George Alan. 15th Lancers. Europe
1903 Mar. 4.		Rogers, Charles Gilbert, F.L.S., F.C.H., Forest Department. Port Blair, Andamans.
1900 April 4.		*Rogers, Major Leonard, M.D., B.S., F.R.C.P., F.R.C.S., I.M.S. 3, Loudon Street, Calcutta.
1907 Mar. 6.	R.	Roormall Goenka. 57, Burtolla Street, Cal-

Date of Election.		
1900 Aug. 29.	N.R.	Rose, Horace Arthur, 1.c.s., Superintendent, Gazetteer Revision, Punjab. Umbala.
1901 Dec. 4.	R.	*Ross, Edward Denison, Ph.D., Assistant Secretary, Government of India, Deptt. of Education. Oalcutta.
1910 Aug. 3.	N.R.	Routh, Major G. M., Royal Artillery. Feroze-
1906 Feb. 7. 1908 Feb. 5.	N.R. N.R.	Russell, Charles, M.A. Patna College, Banki- Russell, Robert Vam, I.C.s., Supdt. of Gazet- teer and Ethnography. Nagpur.
1886 Mar. 3.	L.M.	Rustomjee Dhúnjeebhoy Mehta, C.I.E. 55, Canning Street, Calcutta.
1910 Sept. 7. 1896 Aug. 27.	N.R.	Sahu Ram Kumar. Thakurdware Moradabad. Samman, Herbert Frederick, I.C.S. Europe.
1910 May 4	R	Sandes, Capt. J. D., I.M.S. Medical College, Calcutta.
1905 Mar. 1.	N.R.	Sasi Bhusan Bose, M.A. Krishnagar College, Krishnagar.
1902 June 4.	R.	*Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, Mahamaho- padhyaya, M.A., Ph.D. 26/1, Kany Lal Dhur's Lane, Calcutta.
1908 Mar. 4.	R.	Satis Kumar Banerji. 45, Baniatola Lane, Calcutta.
1896 Mar. 4.	N.R.	Satish Chandra Banerji, M.A., LL.D., Advo- cate, High Court. Allahabad.
1902 Feb. 5.	R.	Schulten, Joseph Henry Charles, Ph.D. 4, Pollock Street, Calcutta.
1900 Dec. 5.	N.R.	Schwaiger, Imre George, Expert in Indian Art. Kashmir Gate, Delhi.
1897 Dec. 1. 1907 Aug. 7.	R. N.R.	Seth, Mesrovb J. 11, Wellesley Square. Shah Munir Alam, B.A., L.L.B. Mainpura,
1909 Jan. 6.	R:	Sharfuddin, The Hon. Mr. Justice Syed, Judge, High Court. 15, London Street, Calcutta.
1906 Dec. 5.	N.R.	Sharp, Henry, M.A., Director of Public In- struction, Eastern Bengal and Assam. Shillong.
1909 July 7.	N.R.	Shib Nath Bhattacharjee, M.B. General Hus- pital, Rangoon.
1894 June 6.	N.R.	Shibli Nomani, Shams-ul-Ulama Maulavi. Lucknow.
1909 Jan. 6.	N.R.	Shirreff, Alexander Grierson, B.A., I.C.S. Gonda, U.P.
1908 Mar. 4.	R.	Shujaat Ali Khan Bahadur, Nasurul Mamalik Mirza, Acting Consul-General for Persia. 10, Hungerford Street, Calcutta.
1906 Mar. 7.	R.	Shyama Kumar Tagore, Kumar, Zemindar. 65, Pathuriaghutta Street, Calcutta.

Date of Election.	1	
1902 Feb. 5.	N.R.	Shyam Lal, Lala, M.A., LL:B., Deputy Col-
1002 160.0.	11.10.	lector. Naimadri, Agra.
1894 Aug. 30	R.	Sibnarayan Mukerjee. Uttarpara, Bally.
1899 May 3.		Silberrad, Charles Arthur, B.A., B.Sc., I.C.S.
,		Jhansi.
1909 April 7.	F.M.	Simpson, George Clarke, D.Sc. O/o Delhi and London Bank, Simla.
1903 Aug. 26.	N.R.	Simpson, John Hope, i.e.s., Registrar of Co- operative Credit Societies, Upper Prov- inces. Allahabad.
1898 Aug. 3.	N.R.	Sita Ram, B.A., Depy. Magistrate. Bahraich.
1872 Aug. 5.	N.R.	Skrefsrud, Revd. Laurentius Olavi, Secretary
_		and Treasurer, Indian Home Mission to
		the Sonthals. Benagerio, via Rampore Haut.
1909 July 7.	R.	Smith, Capt. H. Emslie, I.M.s. 12, Harrington
1007 Dec. 4	NT D	Street, Calcutta.
1907 Dec. 4.	N.R.	Smith, LieutCol. John Manners, Indian Army, v.c., c.i.e. Resident, Nepal.
1907 Mar. 6.	N.R.	Sofiulla Saifududdin Ahmed, Maulavi, In-
2001 22011	11.10.	spector of Excise. Silchar.
1909 Feb. 3.	F.M.	Sommerfeldt, Prof. E. The University, Tübingen, Germany.
1901 Dec. 4.	N.R.	Spooner, David Brainerd, Ph.D., Archeologi-
		cal Surveyor, North-West Frontier Province. Peshawar.
1910 July 6.	R.	Srikrishna Mohapatra. 10/1, St. James's Square.
1907 Oct. 30.	N.R.	Sri Ram Dixit, Pandit, B.A., Secretary, Pratap-
1000 1 11 11	, , ,	garh State. Pratapyarh. [bad.
1909 April 7.	N.R.	Stanley, The Hon, Sir John, Kt., K.C. Allaha-
1904 Sept. 28.		Stableton, Henry Ernest, B.A., B.Sc., Europe.
1901 Mar. 6. 1908 Dec. 2.	A. N.R	Stebbing, Edward Percy, F.E.S., F.Z.S. Europe. Steen, Capt. Hugh Barkley, M.B., I.M.S., Ber-
1906 Dec. 2.	N.K	hampur, Bengal.
1904 June 1.	R	Stephen, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Harry
		Lushington, Judge, High Court. Cal-
1899 Aug. 30.	R.	Stephen, St. John, B.A., LL.B., Barrister-at-
	i	Law. 7, Russell Street, Calcutta.
1900 Aug. 29.	N.R.	Stephenson, Major John, I.M.S. Lahore.
1907 Dec. 4.	R.	Stevens, Major C. R., I.M.S. Medical College, Calcutta.
1907 June 5.	R.	Stewart, Capt. Francis Hugh, I.M.S. United Service Club, Calcutta.
1907 April 3.		Stewart, Captain Hugh, Indian Army. Europe.
	F.M.	Stokes, Captain Claude Bayfield, Military Attaché. Teheran, Persia.
1909 Feb. 3.	N.R.	Stuart, Sir Harold, K.C.V.O., C.S.I., Simla.
1906 Dec. 5.	R.	Subodh Chandra Mahalanobis, B.Sc., F.R.S.E.,
•	1	F.R.M.S. 210, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.

Date of Election.)	
1905 Jan. 4.	R.	Sukumar Sen. 220, Lower Circular Road,
1908 June 3.	N.R.	Surendra Chandra Roy Chaudhuri, Zemin- dar. Koondi, Rungpur.
1906 June 6.	N.R.	Surendra Prasad Sanial, Sri, M.A., F.C.S., Private Secretary to Raja Bahadur. <i>Majhauli</i> .
19 0 8 Jan. 1.	N.R.	Suresh Chandra Ghatak, Depy. Magistrate and Depy. Collector. Dacca.
1907 June 5.	N.R.	Swinhoe, Rodway Charles John, Solicitor. Mandalay, Upper Burma.
1904 July 6.	N.R.	Talbot, Walter Stanley, i.c.s., Revenue Commissioner. Kashmir, Srinagar.
1910 Aug. 3.	N. R	Tancock, Capt. Alexander Charles. 31st Pun- jabis, Nowshera.
1893 Aug. 31.	N.R.	Tate, George Passman, Assistant Super- intendent, Survey of India. Dehra Dun.
1909 Jan. 6.	N.R.	Taylor, Charles Somers, B.Sc. Bhagalpur.
1907 June 5.	A.	Taylor, Dr. G. Orissa. Europe.
1910 April 6.	N.R.	Teesdale, Capt. Frank Robinson. 25th Cavalry F.F., Nowshera.
1 878 June 5.	N.R.	Temple, Colonel Sir Richard Carnac, Bart., Indian Army, C.I.E. C/o Messrs. King, King & Co., Bombay.
1906 Dec. 5.	N.R.	Tek Chand. Dewan, B.A., M.R.A.s., L.C.S., Deputy Commissioner. Ludhiana.
1875 June 2.	R.	*Thibaut, G., Ph.D., C.I.E., Registrar, Calcutta University. Oalcutta.
1909 Aug. 4.	N.R.	Thompson, John Perronet, M.A., 1.C.S. Hoshiarpur.
1908 Nov. 4.	N.R.	Thornely, Capt. Michael Harris, 1.M.S. Man-bhum.
1898 Nov. 2.	R.	Thornton, Edward, F.R.I.B.A. 6, Olive Streat, Calcutta.
1904 June 1.	R.	Tipper, George Howlett, M.A., F.G.S., Assistant Superintendent, Geological Survey of India. Calcutta.
1907 Feb. 6.		*Travers, Morris William, D.Sc., F.R.S., Director of Indian Institute of Science. Bangalore.
1861 June 5.		Tremlett, James Dyer, M.A., I.C.s. (retired). Dedham, Essex, England.
1899 Aug. 30.		Tribhuban Deb, Raja Saccidananda Feudatory Chief of Bamra. Deogarh, Bamra.
1897 Jan. 6.	N.R.	Tulsi Ram Misra, M.A., Acting Principal, Gurukula Academy. Hardwar.
1908 Jan. 1.	R.	Upendra Nath Brahmachari, M.A., M.D. 10, Nimtola Ghat Street, Calcutta.
1905 Aug. 2.	N.R.	Urwin, Captain John Johnson, M.B., I.M.S. Motihari.

Date of Election.	
1894 Mar. 7.	Professor Theodor Noeldeke. C/o Mr. Karl T. Trübner, Strassburg, Germany.
1895 June 5.	Lord Rayleigh, M.A., D.C.L., D.Sc., LL.D., Ph.D., F.R.A.S.,
LOUD BUILD U.	F.R.S. Ferling Place, Witham, Essex, England.
1895 June 5.	Charles H. Tawney, Esq., M.A., C.I.E. C/o India
account of	Office, London.
1896 Feb. 5.	Lord Lister, F.R.C.S., D.C.L., M.D., LL.D., D.Sc., F.R.S.
1000 Feb. 9.	12, Park Crescent, Portland Place, London.
1896 Feb. 5.	Professor Charles Rockwell Lanman. 9, Farrar
1030 Feb. 5.	Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts, U.S. America.
1899 Feb. 1.	
1099 Feb. 1.	Dr. Augustus Frederick Rudolf Hærnle, Ph.D., C.I.E.
1000 D	8, Northmoor Road, Oxford, England.
1899 Dec. 6.	Professor Edwin Ray Lankester, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S.,
	British Museum (Nat. Hist.), Oromwell Road,
1000 D	London, S.W.
1899 Dec. 6.	Professor Edward Burnett Tylor, D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S.,
1000 0	Keeper, University Museum. Oxford, England.
1899 Dec. 6.	Professor Edward Suess, Ph.D., Professor of Geology
****	in the University of Vienna.
1901 Mar. 6.	Professor John Wesley Judd, C.B., LL.D., F.R.S., F.G.S.,
	Late Prof. of the Royal College of Science.
	30, Cumberland Road, Kew, England.
1902 Nov. 5.	Monsieur René Zeiller. Ingénieur en chef des Mines.
	Ecole superieur des Mines, Paris.
1904 Mar. 2.	Professor Hendrick Kern. Utrecht, Holland.
1904 Mar. 2.	Professor Ramkrishna Gopal Bhandarkar, c.t.E.
	Poona.
1904 Mar. 2.	Professor Ignaz Goldziher, Ph.D., D.Litt., LL.D.
	Budapest, Hungary.
1904 Mar. 2.	Sir Charles Lyall, M.A., K.C.S.L., C.I.E., LL.D. 82,
	Cornwall Gardens, London, S.W.
1904 Mar. 2.	Sir William Ramsay, Ph.D. (Tüb.), LL.D., Sc.D.
	(Dubl.), F.C.S., F.I.C. University College, Gower
	Strect, London, W.C.
1904 July 2.	Dr. George Abraham Grierson, Ph.D., D.Litt., C.I.E.,
	1.c.s. (retired). Rothfarnham, Camberley, Surrey,
	England.
1906 Mar. 7.	The Right Hon'ble Baron Curzon of Kedleston,
	M.A., D.C.L., F.R.S. 1, Carlton House Terrace, Lon-
	don, S.W.
1908 July 1.	LtCol. Henry Haversham Godwin-Austen, F.F.S.,
	F.Z.S., F.R.G.S. Nora Godalming, Surrey, Eng-
	land.
1908 July 1.	
•	Castelnau, Barnes. London.
1908 July 1.	
	Germany.
1910 Aug. 7.	
,,	Lane, Calcutta.

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FELLOWS.

Date of Election	on.	1
1910 Feb.	2.	Dr. N. Annandale, D.Sc., C.M.Z.S., F.L.S.
1910 Feb.	2.	The Hon'ble Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, c.s.i.,
	-	M.A., D.L., D.Sc., F.R.A.S., F.R.S.E.
1910 Feb.		I. H. Burkill, Esq., M.A., F.L.S.
1910 Feb.	2.	Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Sashtri, M.A.
1910 Feb.	2.	Sir Thomas Holland, K.C.I.E., D.Sc., A.R.C.S., F.G.S.,
		F.R.S.
1910 Feb.	2.	
1910 Feb.	2.	T. H. D. LaTouche, Esq., BA, F.G.S.
1910 Feb.	2.	Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L.
1910 Feb.	2.	LieutColonel D. C. Phillott, Indian Army.
1910 Feb.	2.	Dr. Prafulla Chandra Ray, D.Sc.
1910 Feb.	2.	Major L. Rogers, M.D., B.S., F.R.C.P., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.
1910 Feb.	2.	Dr. E. D. Ross, Ph.D.
1910 Feb.	2.	Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana,
		M.A., Ph.D., M.R.A.S.
1910 Feb.	2.	Dr. G. Thibaut, Ph.D., C.I.E.
1910 Feb.	2.	Dr. M. W. Travers, D.Sc., F.R.S.
1910 Feb.	2.	A. Venis, Esq., M.A.
1910 Feb.	2.	Dr. G. T. Walker, M.A., F.R.S.
•		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

ASSOCIATE MEMBERS.

Date of Election.	
-	
1875 Dec. 1.	Revd. J. D. Bate. 15, St. John's Uhurch Road,
	Folkstone, Kent, England.
1882 June 7.	Herbert Giles, Esq. Europe.
	F. Moore, Esq., F.L.S. Claremont House, Avenue Road,
	Penge, Surrey, England.
1885 Dec. 2.	Dr. A. Führer. Europe.
1886 Dec. 1.	Sri Sarat Chandra Das, Rai Bahadur, C.I.E. 32,
	Creek Row, Calcutta.
1899 April 5.	Pandit Visnu Prasad Raj Bhandari. Chief
	Librarian, Bir Library. Katmundu, Nepal.
1899 Nov. 1.	Revd. E. Francotte, s.j. 30, Park Street, Cal-
	cutta.
1902 June 4	Revd. A. H. Francke. Niesky Ober-Lausitz, Ger-
round i.	many.
1908 July 1	Babu Dinesh Chandra Sen. 19, Kantapuker Lane,
1000 0 011, 1.	Calcutta.
1908 July 1	Mahamahopadhaya Sudhakara Dvivedi. Sanskrit
1000 buly 1.	College, Benares.
1908 July 1	Revd. Father J. Hoffmann, s.J. Mauresa House,
1000 July 1.	Ranchi.
1000 Man 9	
iovo mini. d.	Rai Balkrishna Atmaram Gupte, Bahadur. Indian
	Museum, Calcutta.

Date of Election.

1910 Sept 7. Shamsul Ulama Maulvi Ahmad Abdul Aziz.

Azees Bay, City-Hyderabad, Deccan.

1910 Sept. 7. L. K. Anantha Krishna Iyer, Esq. Thichur.

1910 Dec. 7. The Rev. H. Hosten, s.J. 30, Park Street, Calcutta.

LIST OF MEMBERS WHO HAVE BEEN ABSENT FROM INDIA THREE YEARS AND UPWARDS.*

* Rule 40.—After the lapse of three years from the date of a member leaving India, if no intimation of his wishes shall in the interval have been received by the Society, his name shall be removed from the List of Members.

The following members will be removed from the next Member List of the Society under the operation of the above Rule:—

Frederick MacBlaine, Esq., i.c.s. Phra Maha Chandeina.

LOSS OF MEMBERS DURING 1910.

BY RETIREMENT.

Claude Arthur Cecil Streatfield, Esq., 1,c.s. Dr. Arnold Caddy, F.R.C.s. Babu Durgadas Bhatta. Herbert Phillip Duval, Esq., M.A., 1.C.s. Henry George Fitzgerald, Esq. Lieut. Rodney Foster, R.E. Babu Gagonendranath Tagore. J. H. Hyde, Esq. Chinta Ito, Esq. William Bernard MacCabe, Esq., c.E., F.I.C. Major Norman Robinson Rainier, 1.M.S. Lieut.-Col. Robert Broadley Rae, I.M.S. Maulavi Sakhawat Hosain. Louis Stuart, Esq. Frank Turner, Esq., B A. Henry Wheeler, Esq., i.c.s. Henry Charles Woadman, Esq., 1.c.s. David Henry Wylmunt Richie, Esq.

BY DEATH.

Ordinary Members.

Babu Hanuman Prasad. Pandit Yogesa Chandra Sastri-Sankhyaratna-Vedatirtha.

Honorary Members.

Mahamahopadhaya Chandra Kanta Tarkalankara. Professor M. Treub.

UNDER RULE 40.

Gerald Cecil Dudgeon, Esq. Sir Joseph Bampfylde Fuller, k c.s.1.

ELLIOTT GOLD MEDAL.

RECIPIENTS.

1893	Chandra Kanta Basu.
1895	Yati Bhusana Bhaduri, M.A.
1896	Jnan Saran Chakravarti, M.A.
1897	Sarasi Lal Sarkar, M.A.
1901	Sarasi Lal Sarkar, M.A.
1904	Sarasi Lal Sarkar, M.A. Surendra Nath Maitra, M.A.
	Akshoyakumar Mazumder.

BARCLAY MEMORIAL MEDAL.

RECIPIENTS.

1901 E. Ernest Green, Esq.
1903 Major Ronald Ross, F.R.C.S., C.B., C.I.E., F.R.S., I.M.S. (retired).
1905 Lieut.-Colonel D. D. Cunningham, F.R.S., C.I.E., I.M.S. (retired).
1907 Lieut.-Colonel Alfred William Alcock, M.B., LL.D., C.I.E., F.R.S.
1909. Lieut.-Colonel David Prain, M.A., M.B., LL.D. F.R.S., I.M.S. (retired).

[APPENDIX.]

ABSTRACT STATEMENTS

OF

RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

OF THE

ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL

FOR

THE YEAR 1910.

STATEMENT

Asiatic Society

Dr.

Do. (Officer in charge for Researches in History, Religion, Ethnology and Folklore in Bengal)		•	2012221011		Rs.	As.	P.	Rs.	As.	Р.
Do. (Officer in charge for Researches in History, Religion, Ethnology and Folklore in Bengal)	Spleries				5.854	18	10			
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in Bengal)	History Religion	. Ethnolog	v and Folkl	Ore				·	•	
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To Contingencies To Continge							_			
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To Contingencies Stationery	Grain Compensation	22210 11 41100	•••	•••			_		6	A
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Taxes 1,465 0 0 Postage 888 3 3 Freight	Stationery				183	2	8			
Postage	Manage									
To Library and Collections										
Auditing										
Lights and Fans					100	U	0			
Insurance fee										
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Miscellaneous					79	12	0			
To Library and Collections. Books 2,627 3 10 Purchase of Manuscripts 2,250 0 0 Binding 1,288 13 0 Library Catalogue 1,049 2 0 Paging of Manuscripts 199 0 0 Manuscript Catalogue (Chinese and Tibetan) 444 0 0 To Publications. To Publications. To Publications. 12,388 10 3 To printing charges of Circulars, &c 284 2 0 Loan 284 2 0 Loan 4,771 0 0 0 Building 48 0 0 Tax (Unfiltered Water) 48 0 0 Tax (Unfiltered Water) 80 0 0 To Personal Account (written off and miscellaneous) 200 1 0 To Extraordinary Expenditure. Royal Society's Scientific Catalogue 4,774 13 8 Balance 4,774 13 8					976	10	8			
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TOTAL Rs 2,28,805 14 8					•			-,02,000	. *	
			TOTAL 1	Rs.			•••	2,28,805	14	8
								,==,=30		

No. 1.

of Bengal.

1910.

	C	r.						
-			Rs.	As.	P.	Rs.	۸s.	P.
By Balance from last Report	•••				1	,98,522	18	8
•			•			,,		
. В	y Cash	RECEIPTS						
Publications sold for cash			873	12	7			
Interest on Investments		•••	7,096	9	7			
Rent of room in the Society's	premises	•••	600		Ó		•	
Allowance from the Governme								
the publication of papers on	Anthrop	ological						
	•••		2,000	0	0			
Do. do. Government of					٠,	•		
and Assam			2,000	0	0			
Do. do. Government								
Researches in History, B		Ethno-		_	` _ •			
logy, and Folklore of Benga		10.	3,600					
Loan	• • •	•••	2,000					34.00
Miscellaneous	•••	•••	375	12	9		_	
						18,546	z	11
By Ex	TRAORDII	NARY REC	EIPTS.					
Subscriptions to Royal Soci	ietv's Sc	cientific						
Catalogue	•••	•••				571	2	0
8						***	_	•
Вч	Persona	L Accou	NT.					
Admission fees			1,888	0	0			
Members' subscriptions	•••	•••	11,610					
Compound subscription	•••	***	500					
Subscriptions for the Society'	s "Jour	nal and		_	-			
Proceedings" and "Memoir	в ''	•••	1,656	0	0			
Sales on credit	•••	•••	383		0			
Miscellaneous	•••	•••	127	15	6			
						16,165	12	6

TOTAL Rs.

2.28,805 14 8

D. HOOPER,

lxxxiv

STATEMENT

1910. Oriental Publication Fund, No. 1, in

Dr.

To Cash Expenditure.

			Rs.	As.	P.	Rs.	As	. P.
•••	•••	•••	1,728	8	5			
•••		•••	31	12	1			
•••	•••	•••	154	0	9			
•••	••.	•••	81	7	6			
			8.188	5	0			
•••			20	10	3			
•••			97	2	7			
Allowance	•••		10	12	6			
			6.085	5	6			
	***	•••	25	Ô	Ö			
(written off	and mi	cella.			_	11,422	11	7
•						86	4	0
			•••			6,229	3	4
	Тот	AL Rs.				17.688	2	11
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STATEMENT

1910. Oriental Publication Fund, No. 2, in

Dr.

To CASH EXPENDITURE.

					Rs. As. P.
Printing charges	•••	Balance	•••	•••	848 14 0
		Dalance	•••	•••	8,081 3 0

TOTAL Rs. ... 8,925 1 0

No. 2.

Acct. with the Asiatic Soc. of Bengal. 1910.

	Cr	٠.					
•			Rs. As.	P.	Rs.	As.	P.
By Balance from last Repor	t	•••	•••		5,651	14	8
	BY CASH R	ECEIPTS					
Government Allowances Publications sold for cash Advances recovered	•••	•••	9,250 0 1,416 15 65 0		10,781	15	8
В	Y PERSONAL	Accoun	NT.				
Sales on credit	***	•••	•••		1,304	5	0
	Тот	AL Rs.			17,688	2	11
		D. H	OOPER,				
		**					

D. HOOPER, Honorary Treasurer, Asiatic Society of Bengal.

No. 3.

Acct. with the Asiatic Soc. of Bengal. 1910.

	Cı					
				Rs. A	s.	P.
By Balance from last Report	•••	•••	•••	5,675]	0
Ву	Савн	RECEIPTS.				
Government Allowance			•••	3,2 50	0	0
	То	TAL Rs.	•••	8,925	1	0

D. HOOPER,

STATEMENT

1910 Oriental Publication Fund, No. 3, in

Dr.

	To Cash Expens	DITURE.	Rs. As. P.
Printing charges	Balance		 485 14 0 1,854 18 6
	TOTAL Rs.		 2,840 11 6

STATEMENT

1910. Sanskrit Manuscript Fund in Acct.

Dr.

TO CASH EXPENDITURE.

				Rs.	As.	P.	Rs.	As.	P.
Salaries	•••			1,434	0	0			-
Grain Compensatio	n Allov	rance		5	ō	Ŏ			
Contingencies		***		233	15	0	•		
Stationery	•••	***		15	15	9			
Purchase of Manus	cripts	•••		200	0	0			
Insurance		••		125	0	Ō			
Printing charges	•••	•••	•••	3	0	Õ			
		Balance	•••	•••			2,016 1,952		9
		TOTAL	Rs.				3,969	4	11

No. 4.

Acct. with the Asiatic Soc. of Bengal. 1910.

	Cr.				-
By Balance from last Report			. •••	Rs. As. 2,340 11	P. 6
	Total Rs.		•••	2,840 11	-6
]	D. Hooper,			
		Honorary !	Ireasur So ci et	er, y of Ben gal	

No. B.

with the Asiatic Society of Bengal. 1910.

	Cr.				
			Rs. As P.	Rs. As. P	
By Balance from last Report	•••	•••	`	758 4 11	
Ву	CASH R	ECEIPTS.			
Government Allowance Publications sold for cash	•••	•••	3,200 0 0 10 0 0	8,21 0 0 0	
By P	ERSONAL	ACCOUN	т.		
Sales on cred	•••	•••		1 0 0	
	Тота	L Rs.	•••	3,969 4 11	

D. HOOPER,

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STATEMENT

1910. Arabic and Persian MSS. Fund in

Dr.

To Cash Expenditure.

Loan Postage		 •••	•••	2,000 19	0 4	0			
Freight Binding	•••	 		78 6	5 12	0			
Travelling	charges	 	•••	351	2	0	12,208 1,567	1 0	6

STATEMENT

1910. Bardic Chronicles MSS. Fund in

Dr.

To Balance				Rs.	Aя.	P.	Rs.	As.	P.
To Balance	***	•••	•••		•…		1,716	5 2	6
		Тот	AL Rs.		•••		1,716	5 2	6

No. 6.

Acct. with the Asiatic Soc. of Bengal. 1910.

•	Cr.		Rs. A	٩s.	P.	Rs.	As.	P.
By Balance from last Report	•••					2,065	1	6
Ву	Cash Rece	IPTS.						
		•••	5,000 2,000 4,710	0 0 0	0 0 0			
		-			-	11,710	0	0

TOTAL Rs.

13,775 1 6

D. Hooper,

Honorary Treasurer,

Asiatic Society of Bengal.

No. 7.

Acct. with the Asiatic Soc. of Bengal. 1910.

•	Cr	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.
By Balance from last Report			1,716 2 6
•	TOTAL Rs.		1,716 2 6

D. HOOPER,

STATEMENT

Personal

1910.

	Rs. As.	P.	Rs.	P.			
To Balance from last Report	•••		•••		5,129	9	7
То	CASH EXPEN	DITU	RE.				
Advances for purchase of Mar To Asiatic Society ,, Oriental Publication Fund, ,, Sanskrit Manuscript Fund		•••	16,165 12 1,304 5 1 0		885	2	6
					17,471	1	6

TOTAL Rs.

23,485 13 7

STATEMENT

1910.

Invest-

				Dr.									
					V	alu	e.		Cost.				
						Rs.		Aa.	Ρ.		Rs.	As	. P.
To Balance from last Report Bank's Brokerage and Commission		•••	2,03,70	0)	2,02	2,629 14		5			
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. 1997 107		PERMA	NENT	BREEZE,		Tempobal	BY	RESE	RVE		,		
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No. 8

Account.

1910.

					C	r.			7		
• • •							Rs.	As. F	Rs.	As.	P
By Cash Receipt ,, Asiatic Socie ,, Oriental Pub	ty .	n F	und	 No	,		209 36		18,02 0	5 4	đ
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By Balance.		o to the			hy ociety		•				
a seeming a supplementation of the second state.	Rs.	As.	P.	Rs.	As.	P.					
lembers imployés mental Publication	3,497 30	11 0	7	120 100	3 0	0					
Fund, No. 1	832	0	0								
	1,000 20 109	0 0 5	0 0 6		10				•		
	5,489	1	1	273	13	0	••		5,21	5 4	1
					Тот	AL Rs.			28,48	18	7
						D 17.			-		_

D. HOOPER,

Honorary Treasurer,
Asiatic Society of Bengal.

No. 9.

ment.

1910.

		Cr.							
				Val	ue.	Cos	t.		
				Rs.	As.	P.	Rs.	As. P.	
Sa le	•••	•••	•••					12 0	
By Balance	•••	•••	•••	1,98,700	0	0	1,97,926	0 10	
		TOTAL Rs.	•••	2,03,700	0	0	2,02,644	12 10	

D. HOOPER,

STATEMENT

1910.

Trust

		Dr.			
					Rs. As, P.
To Pension	 ***	•••	•••	48 0 0	
	Balance		•••	•••	1,465 11 10
		TOTAL :	Rs.		1,518 11 10

STATEMENT

1910.

Cash

		-	
I	Or.		
To Polomes from last Donort			Rs. As. P.
To Balance from last Report	•••	•••	5,435 6 2
REG	CRIPTS.		
		Rs. As. P.	
To Asiatic Society	•••	19,117 4 11	
"Oriental Publication Fund, No. 1	•••	10,731 15 3	
" Do. do. No. 2	•••	3,250 0 0	
"Sanskrit Manuscripts Fund		3,210 0 0	
" Arabic and Persian MSS. Fund		1,1710 0 0	
" Personal Account	***	18,025 4 6	•
,, Investment	•••	4,718 12 0	
"Trust Fund		49 0 0	
			70,812 4 8
	TOTAL Rs.	•••	76,247 10 10

No. 10.

Fund.

1910.

Cı	·.		
			Rs. As. P.
•••			1,464 11 10
•••		•••	49 0 0
Tot	AL Rs.	•••	1,518 11 10

D. HOOPER,

Honorary Treasurer,
Asiatic Society of Bengal.

No. 11.

Account.

1910.

Cr.

		Expe	NDITURE.						
				Rs.	As.	. P.	Rs.	As.	P.
By Asiatic Societ	tv			45,666	11	0			
" Oriental Publ	ication Fu	nd, No. 1	•••	11,422	11	7			
., Do.	do.	No. 2		843	14	0			
,, D o.	do.	No. 3	•••	485	14	0			
, Sanskrit Man	nscripts F	und		2,016	14	9			
, Arabic and Pe	raian MS	S. Fund		12,208	1	6			
Personal Acco				885	2	6			
Investment	***			14	15	5			
Trust Fund		•••		48	0	0			
,, 11 abo 1 and							78,592	4	9
•		Balance	•••				2,655	6	1
•			TOTAL Rs.				76,247	10	10

D. HOOPER,

Honorary Treasurer,
Asiatic Society of Bengal.

STATEMENT

1910.

Balance

LIABILITIES.

				Rs.	Δs	. P	. Re.	As.	P.
Asiatic Society		•••		1,82,930	2	8		0	
Oriental Publica	tion Fund	i, No. 1		6,229	3	4			
Do.	do.	No. 2		8,081	3	0			
Do.	do.	No.8	•••	1,854	18	6			
Sanskrit Manusc	ripts Fur			1,952	6	2			
Arabic and Pers	ian Manu	scripts Fund	•••	1,567	0	0			
Bardic Chronicle	es Manusc	ripts Fund		1,716	2	6			
Trust Fund	•••	•••	•••	1,465	11	10			
						_	2,05,796	11	0
		Тота	L Rs.	•••		•	2,05,796	11	0

We have examined the above Balance Sheet, and the appended detailed Accounts with the books and vouchers presented to us, and certify that it is in accordance therewith, correctly setting forth the position of the Society as at the 31st December, 1910.

CALCUTTA, 25th January, 1910. MEUGENS, KING & Co.,

Chartered Accountants.
Auditors.

Sheet.

1910.

ASSETS.

Personal Account Investment (8½°/00 Cash Account	 Jovernme	ent Pro. Notes, Cost)	5,215	As. P. 4 1 0 10 6 1	Rs 05.796	As .	P. 0
3°/ _o Government¦P Safe Custody A Deposit Rs. 500	ro. Note Account,	at Bank of Bengal's Cashier's Security	•••	~ ,		••	
		TOTAL Rs.	***	2	05,796	11	0

D. HOOPER,

Honorary Treasurer,
Asiatic Society of Bengal.

7. Frey João da Cruz, O.S.A. (+1638).

By REv. H. Hosten, S.J.

"The venerable John da Cruz was born of pious parents in the town of Alpedrina, Diocese of Guarda, in the Kingdom of Portugal. From his tenderest years he was vested—a pious custom with children—in the habit of the Friars Minor. When bigger, he went to India with his uncle, our Father Frey Sebastian of the Purification, who was sent thither in 1586 by Frey Denis of Jesus, the Superior of this Province, with the following companions:—Fathers Louis of Paradise, the Provincial: Francis of St. Stephen, Prior of Goa; Peter of the Cross; Sebastian de Moraes; Fulgentius of the H. Ghost; John of the Trinity; Didacus of the Trinity; Francis, commonly Arpa, and the Chorister Matthew of St. Joseph. After landing in India, he took the habit in 1588, his uncle proffering his help in the matter. After his vows he applied himself successfully to his studies. Next he was sent to Bengal, there to preach the faith to the heathen. His efforts were admirably rewarded; he converted to the true faith numberless souls and bore for Christ mighty labours and wounds, for on June 24th, 1632,1 during the siege of Ugolim [Hugli] the Moors wounded him in the back with a keen-edged scimitar, and only by a miracle was he saved from death. Recalled at last to Goa, he lived there in high sanctity, until he happily ended this life in 1638. on a Friday of June or July, as is variously related in our Indian histories. Since Easter was celebrated in 1638 on April 1, the Ascension on May 13, Whitsunday on May 23, and Corpus Christi on June 3, it follows that the first Friday was on June 4, the second on the 11th, the third on the 18th, the fourth on the 25th. Hence, I speak of him on the second Friday of the same month, believing him to have died then. His body was interred in the chapter of the monastery; but later, in 1693, through the care of his nephew, Frey Francis da Cruz, it was placed in a raised tomb of black stone, where it is held in great veneration. All this is found related in a MS. history of Goa entitled Breviloquium rerum Congregationis Indiana. 2 Pt.

1 This date is apparently wrong. Itemust have been at the end of September, when Hugli fell. The siege commenced only on June 24.

² Complete reference: Brevilogio das noticias das couzas e dos sofettos da Congregação da India dos Eremitas de Santo Agostinho. MS. 8 vo., foll. 180, formerly in the Convent de Nossa Senhora da Graça, Lisbon. Cf. BARBOSA MACHADO, Bibliotheca Lusitana, Lisboa, MDCCXLVII, II. 2. I am told by Fray Tirso Lopez, O.S.A., Valladolid, that Frey Faustino da

2, notice 13, fol. 117; notice 15, fol. 133; notice 19, fol. 172, and in his Life edited ? by our Frey Lawrence of Grace, a Portuguese. He is also mentioned by our historians, the illustrious Joseph Sicardo in his history of Japan [Christiandad del Japon Bk. I, ch. 3, fol. 24, and Joseph of St. Anthony in Flos Sanctorum, 2 Tom. III, fol. 231."8

Ven. Joannes à Cruce natus est in oppide de Alpedrina in Dicecesi Ægitanensi, in regno Lusitaniae piis parentibus. A primis annis habitu Minorum, ut solent pueri devotione, indutus est. Grandior factus, in Indiam perrexit cum avunculo suo, nostro P. Fr. Sebastiano a Purificatione illuc misso anno 1586, ab hujus Provinciæ Præsule, Fr. Dionisio à Jesu, cum sociis, PP. Ludovico à Paradiso, Provinciali, Francisco à S. Stephano, Goensi Priore, Petro à Cruce, Sebastiano de Moraes, Fulgentio à Spiritu Sancto, Joanne à Trinitate, Didaco à Trinitate, Francisco vulgariter Arpa, & Chorista Mathæo à S. Josepho. In Indiam appulsus; avunculi ope habitum assumpsit anno 1588. Votis ligatus, studiis operam egregie navavit. In Bengallam missus est, ut ibi gentibus fidem promulgaret, ubi mirabili eventu innumeros ad fidei reduxit veritatem, & pro Christi nomine immensos exantlavit labores, & vulners, utpote qui in obsidione portus Ugolinensis anno 1632, die 24. Junii à Mauris per terga harpe acutissima apertus est, & miraculose à mortis periculo servatus est. Goam tandem vocatus, ibi mirabili degens sanctitate, anno 1638, felici exitu vitam solvit in quadam sexta feria mensis Junii vel Julii, ut diversimode narratur in historiis Indianis. Cum ergo anno 1638 Pascha celebraretur 4 Aprilis, Ascensio 13 Maii, Pentecostes 23 Maii, Corpus Christi 3 Junii, sequitur primam sextam feriam fuisse 4 Junii, secundam 11, tertiam 18, quartam 25; idcirco de illo ago in secunda feria ejusdem mensis, credens in illa obiisse. Ejus corpus in cœnobii capitulo tumulatum est; postea industria sui nepotis Fr. Francisci à Cruce anno 1693 collocatum est in tumulo elato lapidis nigri, ub imagne in partic habetur. Hec omnia referentur in historia MS Goana titulo Beevilogani rerum Congregationis Indiana parte 2, notitia 13, fol. 117; notitia 15, 161, 133; & 19, fol. 172, & in vita ejusdem edita à N. Fr. Laurentio à Gratia Lussiano. De illo etiam agunt NN. Illustrissimus Josephus Sicardus in Histor. Japon ia lib. 1. c. 3, fol.

tury; some of his writings were published at Lisbon in 1728, 1734, 1736.

1 Complete reference: Fr. Lourenço da Graça, O.S.A., Vida do P. Fr.
João da Cruz de Goa. XVIIth Century. (Cf. Barbosa Machado, iii, p. 29). I cannot say whether the book was printed or not. A. Burnell in his Tentative list of books relating to the Portuguese in India, Mangalore, 1880, is silent too.

Frey Mancel de Figueiredo, Flos Sanctorum Augustinianorum, Lisbon, 1737.

Graca is the author of another MS. work: Campos dos Filhos de S. Auguste. tinho da Congregação da India Oriental plantados, regados e brotados, [Campi filiorum S. P. Augustini Congregationis Indiæ Orientalis ab ipsis plantati rigati, et fructibus aucti.] In the Library of Evora. Cf. J. H. DA CUNHA RIVARA'S Catal. of that Library, I, 331 sqq. This is a much larger work than the former. Is this the same work as that by the same author which Barbosa Machado (Bibl. Lust.) says was formerly in the National Library of Lisbon: Libra dos secutos da Congregação da In the National Indiacy of Lisson. Little described as Congregação de India da sua fundação ao presente tempo? In the 5th chapter there is question of "the Christianities pertaining to Our Mission of Bengal" (in the original): Notitia 5ª das Christiandades pertenecentes a Nossa Missa de Bengala. The convents, parishes and residences of the Augustinians are there dealt with. Faustinus a Graça must have lived in the 18th central convents.

⁸ This menology of the Friar is taken from Frey Joseph of the

The commonly accredited opinion in modern works on Hugli 1 is that Frey João da Cruz was taken to Agra (1632-33) with other priests and 4,000 prisoners and cast before an infuriated elephant. However, by a miraculous interposition of Providence, he escaped unhurt and obtained from Shah Jahan not only the release of the captives, but a grant of 777 bigahs of land near the Bandel of Hugli.

Asiaticus quotes a Portuguese text obtained from the "Archives" of Bandel (cf. Pt. I, Sketches respecting Bengal, Calcutta, 1803, p. 49), and as he speaks elsewhere (cf. p. 52) of the Life of Frey João da Cruz, we are led to believe that the passage was copied from the Life by Frey Lawrence of

Grace.

The text is as follows: "The day came when the martyrdom was to be accomplished. This was in the year 1633. Emperor ordained that the Very Rev. Father Frey João da Cruz be cast at the feet of an infuriated elephant, to be torn to pieces in his presence and that of the whole of his court; but, the elephant forgetting his natural fierceness knelt at the feet of the said Father and paid him his obeisance (fez the cortezias) and defended him with his proboscis.2 The whole Court and the Emperor too, seeing so great a prodigy, were unanimous in confessing that the said Very Rev. Father Frey João da Cruz was a servant of God. He was instantly brought before the Emperor and was told by him to ask whatever he wished, for he would be granted it all. this he gave him three days' time; but the said Father answered he did not need so much time [for reflection]; he wished only that His Majesty should let him free to return to Bengal, and together with him all the Christian captives."

Unfortunately for Asiaticus and a host of writers who seem to have taken their inspiration from him, nothing allows us so far to believe that the Friar was taken to Agra. Manrique gives us (cf. Itinerario, Ch. LXXXI) the names of the four priests, two Augustinians and two secular priests, who were led to Agra, and, though he relates at length the vicissitudes of Frey João da Cruz (Ch. LXXXII), he mentions nowhere his captivity nor the interesting scene of his rescue. And yet Manrique was in Arakan from 1629 to 1635; he passed through Banja, Tumlook and Pipli in 1636.

² Asiaticus, commenting on the text, rather than translating it, wrote: "The elephant, at sight of the friar, lost his native ferceity and gently 'caressed' him with his proboscis."

Assumption's (O.S.A.) Martyrologium Augustinianum, Ulyssipone, ex typographia Dominici Rodriguez, MDCCLIX, Vol. II, June 11th, p. 182. 1 Cf. all Hugli District Manuals and Gazetteers; also: Bengal Cathotic Herald, Calcutta, May 21, 1842; but for the opinion here advocated of the notes by Fr. Felix, O.C., in Catholic Calendar and Directory for the Archdiocese of Agra, Simla, 1907, pp. 211-214.

and visited Bengal and Agra in 1640 and 1641. He states merely that Frey João by applying certain native remedies, recovered from his wounds in a village near Hugli, and that he was eventually recalled to Goa, where he died. Such, too, is the account, apparently borrowed from Manrique, which we read in Mgr. L. M. Zaleski's Les Martyrs de l' Inde, Lille, Desclée, MDCM, pp. 204-205. The Friar's menology in the Martyrologium Augustinianum does not say more, and it is hardly likely that the author would have omitted a reference to the miracle, had he met it in the sources before him, the Brevilogio and Frey João's Life by Frey Lawrence of Grace.

The conclusion which inevitably forces itself on us is that the miraculous escape of the Friar at Agra is a very late version of the events. The facts connected with the Augustinian prisoners at Agra appear, in some unaccountable way, to have become associated with the saintly memory of Frey João da Cruz. Indeed we read in Manrique, that, shortly after their arrival at Agra, and by Sháh Jahán's order, the priests were taken ignominiously through the streets of Agra to the public square, where they were to be crushed to death by elephants before the whole Court. Was it a mere threat? An astute device to shake them in their faith? Perhaps. At all events, on the wise representations of Asaf Khán, who whispered into his ear the name of the Viceroy of Goa and other grave words of warning, the Emperor desisted.

Similar scenes were witnessed at Dacca, but this was in May 1638, as we know from unpublished letters. Frey João da Cruz could no longer have been in Bengal at that time and, besides, the accounts mention only Father Anthony Farinha, S.J.

As for the Portuguese captives at Agra, it is not correct to say that they were all liberated at once, shortly after their arrival. Many lingered long in prison. Frey Anthony of Christ was still in prison in 1641. Some were ransomed, others fled to Goa or back to Bengal, where they joined the remnants of the defenders of Hugli, then scattered round about Banja, Hijili and Pipli.

¹ Probably, the square near the river gate of the Agra Fort, where criminals were generally executed!

8. The Composition of Indian Yams.

By DAVID HOOPER.

In the Report of the Industrial Section, Indian Museum, for 1903-04, reference was made to the examination of a large number of tubers of species of Dioscorea, collected by the Reporter on Economic Products to the Government of India. About 30 kinds of these roots had been analysed with a view to determine their comparative food value. Since that time further varieties of the roots from plants, critically determined by Mr. I. H. Burkill, have been examined; and it has been considered desirable to publish the collective results. Since some of these roots have, in their natural state, poisonous properties, and are eaten after being washed and cooked, an investigation has been made of the effect of washing by showing the composition of the tuber before and after the process. Tubers of authenticated plants have been tested for poisonous principles and a record has been made of those species in which they are either present or absent, with remarks on the influence of cultivation in reducing the noxious properties. majority of cases the roots were received in a fresh condition. they were dried in the sun or in warm air, and the chemical examination was made on the powdered root. The amount of moisture in the fresh tubers ranged from 70 to 85 per cent., but the results of the analyses, for the sake of comparison, are exhibited in the following table calculated to the absolutely dry sample.

The tubers of the following species and varieties of *Dioscorea* were examined:—

```
D. aculeata (No. 20490), "Chaee," N. Thana, Bombay.
D. alata (No. 20671), Fiji, skin and flesh white.

(No. 20676), Fiji, purplish on drying.
(No. 20688), Fiji, skin and flesh pink.
Aërial tubers, Basirhat.
D. alata, var. farciniformis (18113), Ganjam.
(18972), Jalpaiguri.
```

D. anguina, small tubers.

```
D. anguina, large tubers.
D. belophylla (No. 18180), Betul.
D. bulbijera (No. 16637), Bombay, cultivated.
            (No. 18097), "Manakund," Surat, aërial
               tubers.
            (No. 18185), "Suar Alu," Malda.
            (No. 18269), "Mosha or Pita Alu," Angul. (No. 18563), "Jungli Alu," Dinajpur.
            (No. 33268), "Gethi," Gorakhpur.
            origin not recorded.
D. daemona (No. 20309), Betul, C.P.
                         Burma, non-climbing.
                         Burma, climbing.
                 ,,
D. fasciculata (No. 19562), "Pind Alu," Bhopal.
D. glabra, Chota Nagpur, cultivated.
          Chandwara,
D. Hookeri (No. 33352), Rajmehal, Bengal.
D. oppositifolia (No. 18967), Jajpur, Cuttack.
D. pentaphylla, cylindrical, small tubers.
                           large
               clavate, small tubers.
                        large
               var. Cardoni (No. 18669), Baghelkhund.
                ,, hortorum (No. 18187), Birbhum.
                              (No. 33361), Banji, Raja-
      ,,
                                  mehal, cultivated.
                    Jacquemontii (No. 17937), "Ulshi,"
                                  Thana, Bombay.
                    Rheedei (No. 17762), Cuddapah.
                             (No. 18943), S. Salem.
                             (No. 18945), S. Salem.
```

It will be seen that yams are highly farinaceous articles, consisting of from 70 to over 80 per cent. of carbohydrates composed mainly of starch. The nitrogenous material has rather a wide range of from 7.20 to 15.93 per cent., and an average amount of I per cent. of fatty matter. In the wild yams the quantity of crude fibre and ash is frequently excessive, but in the cultivated kinds, represented by the D. alata of Fiji, these constituents are reduced, and there is a corresponding increase in the proportion of starch. These results do not differ widely from the composition of yams of the West Indies, presumedly cultivated, and analysed by Dr. M. Greshoff. of the Colonial Museum, Haarlem (De Indische Mercuur, Nos. 26, 28, June, 1904). Dr. Greshoff found the average of four analyses, calculated on the water free sample, to be: Fat 1.2, Albuminoids 10.86, Carbohydrates 81.24, Fibre 3.3, Ash 3.4. As a food material yams compare very favourably in composition with the potato. An average analysis of Indian yams

[2.00.]							
		ds.	atee.		Sa, 40.		anhy-
	Fat.	Albuminoids	Carbohydrates.	Fibre.	Ash.	Nitrogen.	Phosphoric dride.
•		₹	0	124		Z	Α.
D. aculeata	1.47	8.98	78.57	10.77	5.26	1.44	•30
D. alata	59		85.02	2.19	4.24	1.28	.44
,,	.72	8.31	84.43	2.31	4.23	1.33	.47
,,	. 74	8.61	80.08	5.54	5.05	1.38	.61
D. alata, var. farciniformis	82	11.01	77·01	6·12 5·27	5.24	1.76 2.02	·87
•	1.20	9.29	77.21	5.81	6.39	1.50	.64
	1.18	12.99	73.09	5.46	7.28	2.08	-88
,, ,, sacciformis	1.26	15.68	71 67	4.69	6.70	2.21	.88
**	1.16	8·83 12·02	78.00 76.10	5.62 4.46	6.39	1.41	78
	• •					1.92	.88
_ · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1.13	12.45	78·42 81·34	3.36	4·54 3·72	1.99	.57
,, large				2.94		1.83	·52
D. belophylla	57	7.81	80.32	4.96	6.35	1.25	·82
D. bulbifera	1.18	10.31	80.49	4.71	3.31	1.65	·77
	1.14	12.77	75.11	3.90	7.08	2.04	·57
,,	1.28	9.98	78.46	6.84	3.44	1.59	.45
,,	1.04	9·67 13·31	81·39 77·50	4·26 3·28	3·64 5·03	1·55 2·13	·45 ·63
••	.75	7.35	77.12	9.64	5.14	1.18	·70
,, · · ·	1.02	8.20	79.95	5.53	5.30	1.31	.50
D. Janes	1.02	7.20	81.45	6.28	4.05	1.15	·77
	1.10	9.12	81.89	3.28	4.61	1.46	-52
,,	97	8.07	81.79	5.04	4.13	1.29	.63
D. fasiculata	1.72	10.82	71.29	6.52	9.65	1.73	.94
D. glabra	1.42	9.73	78.23	3.92	6.70	1.56	.58
,,	1.29	10.13	77.79	5∙0	5.79	1.62	·64
D. Hookeri	77	8.30	85.50	1.52	3.91	1.33	· 5 5
D. oppositifolia	. 1.52	14.70	68.54	6.55	8.69	2.35	.71
D. pentaphylla, small .	. 1.35	12.01	76.29	3.91	6 44	1.92	.44
	. 89	10.32	79.75	3.57	5.47	1.65	.51
,, clavate small		13.30	73.04	5.75	6.82	2.13	.69
,, ,, large	93	12·12 15·93	72.63	7.96	6.36	1.94	.54
,, var. Cardoni	1	10.20	80.77	6·51 3·38	5.77	2·55	·73
,, 1010141	.73	11.98	78.53	2.22	6.54	1.90	-64
,, Jacque-	1.11	15.36	71.66	4.55	7.32	2.46	·70
,, Reedei.		8.68	80.22	4.32	5.60	1.39	.70
79 79 93	1.13	11.97	75.38	5:63	5.89	1.91	62
" " "	. 1.26	10.84	76.10	4.94	7.06	1.73	.71
•			1				1

placed side by side with one of the potato, both calculated on the dry material, shows this similarity:—

	Yam.	Potato.
Fat	 1.02	· 4 6
Albuminoids	 10.87	10.14
Carbohydrates	 77.01	84.79
Fibre	 5.16	07 10
Ash	 5.94	4.61

It has long been known that the tubers of various species of Dioscorea contain a bitter and acrid principle which renders them unfit, in a raw state, for edible purposes. Some tubers are used medicinally, either powdered and applied to sores or as a plaster, or in a fresh state, to disperse swellings. Occasionally the tubers are given internally with some spice and sugar for syphilis, dysentery and diarrhoea. In Sanskrit the tuber bears the name of "Pashpoli" or "strangle cake" on account of its causing great irritation in the mouth and throat, vomiting of blood and a sense of suffocation. The bruised root of D. sikkimensis is used as a fish poison among the Lepchas of Sikkim, and, according to Dr. Thwaites, the tubers of wild Yam are used in Ceylon for the same purpose. Among the Malays some species are employed as arrow poisons. L. Wray attributes the origin to D. hirsuta, Bl. var. reticulata. The poisonous principle of some of the roots appears to partake of the nature of saponin, since this substance froths in water. Dr. J. L. Stewart says that in Kashmir the roots are employed for washing pashm and wool cloth, and Vigne affirms that a small kind of tuber is used to wash cotton cloth, and another kind (D. deltoidea, Wall) is reported to be used for silk. confirmation of these statements W. C. Kalteyer in 1888 investigated the wild Yam of North America (D. villosa) and found that the active part of the root was a substance allied to saponin. Heckel and Schlagdenhauffen, in 1892, examined a Dioscorea from the Gaboon country of Tropical Africa and found that the aërial tubers contained a bitter poisonous glucoside while the underground tubers were free from this toxic principle. Bourqulot and Bridal in 1907 found that the tubercles of D. Macahiba contained neither alkaloids nor glucosides. It is thus evident that the roots of this group of plants poss'ss a very variable composition depending upon either the species of plant or the nature of its growth.

Dr. W. G. Boorsma of Buitenzorg was one of the first to thoroughly examine the poisonous property of *Dioscorea* tubers (Mededeelingen uit s' Lands Plantentuin, XIII, 1894). The material employed consisted of the roots of D. hirsuta, Bl., known in Java under the name of "gadoeng." These roots are used as an alimentary substance by the natives after removing the

poison by chopping up the roots covering them with ashes and placing them in river water for twenty-four hours. Boorsma separated an alkaloid, dioscorine, which he found to be the active principle. Later Dr. H. W. Schutte of the University of Groningen (Onderzoekingen over dioscorine. Diss. 1897) isolated dioscorine, studied several of its salts, and, by elementary analyses, established its composition. The results obtained may thus be summarized:—

- 1. Dioscorine is a crystallizable alkaloid of the composition C₁₈ H₁₉ NO₂. Melting point 43.5°C.
- 2. It is a monatomic base.
- The formula of the chlorohydrate is C₁₃ H₁₉ NO₂, HCl, 2H20. Melting point of anhydrous salt 204°.
- 4. Platinum salt C₁₃ H₁₀ NO₂, Pt. Cl₄, 3H20. Melting point of anhydrous salt 199—200°.
- 5. The gold salt C_{13} H_{10} NO_2 , HC1, $AuCl_3$. Melting point 171° .
- 6. The picrate melts at 183-184°.
- 7. Physiological experiments have shown that dioscorine is a poison producing cramps in the same manner as picrotoxin; dioscorine however is less toxic than this substance.

Dr. K. Gorter (Annales du Jardin Botanique de Buitenzorg, 1910, 385) obtained 0.21 per cent. of this alkaloid in the dry tubers, which is equivalent to 04 per cent. on the fresh tubers, and further investigated its constitution. The alkaloid is separated by extracting the powdered tubers with alcohol (96 per cent.) acidulated with hydrochloric acid. The filtrate is evaporated, dissolved in water rendered alkaline by sodium carbonate, and agitated with chloroform. After distillation of the chloroform, the dioscorine is determined in the residue by titration with centinormal acid.

The alkaloid was sought for during the course of examination of all the above samples of Dioscorea species. It was found to be most abundant in *D. daemona*, it was generally present in *D. bulbifera*, *D. pentaphylla* and its varieties and in some kinds of *D. alata*; it was not detected in *D. anguina*, *D. belophylla* and *D. fasiculata*. The tubers under cultivation appeared to lose much of their acridity and bitterness. While wild tubers of *D. bulbifera* and *D. pentaphylla* as a rule contain alkaloids, the cultivated tubers were in some cases devoid of this constituent. Some of the tubers contained a tanning matter giving a greenish colour with ferric salts. The alcoholic extract of the tubers contained varying amounts of glucose and cane sugar.

Reference has been made to the practice in various parts of the world of treating the wild yams with water to remove the nauseous properties. The fresh tubers are usually sliced and cut into squares and soaked for several hours in water; in some districts the sliced roots are covered or placed in lime or ashes before soaking. It is also reported that the roots are roasted or baked on a fire in order to render them palatable and destroy the poison. An experiment was made with three kinds of bitter yams by reducing them to coarse fragments and analysing them, and then soaking another portion in water, extracting the soluble matter and analysing the residue. The following interesting results were obtained; in each case the figures for the sake of comparison are calculated on the dried samples:—

			D. dae	mo n a.	D. pentaphylla.			
•			Before.	After.	Before.	After.	Before.	After.
Fat	• •	••	1.72	1.66	1.38	1.61	1.74	1.33
Albumin	oids		8.34	4.86	7.59	6.72	12.30	8.71
Carbohyo	drates	••	75.72	80.97	81-59	82.04	74.62	80.47
Fibre	••		8.18	10.33	3.49	6.87	5.63	5.73
Ash	••		6.04	2.18	5.95	2.76	5.71	3.76
			100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
N			1.33	77	1.51	1.08	1.97	1.39
P_2O_b			.50	-11	.66	.23	-86	.33

The water extracts the whole of the soluble matter of the root, including alkaloids, glucosides, sugar and alkaline salts. A certain amount of albuminoids is also removed, and the proportion of insoluble carbohydrates, chiefly starch and woody fibre, is raised. The small quantity of fatty matter is not appreciably affected by the operation. It is interesting to notice that the phosphoric anhydride is considerably reduced by washing, indicating that in subterranean portions of the plant this body exists for the most part in a soluble form, as in the case of cereal grains. The roots of yams after washing in water are shown by their composition to be somewhat of a coarse food, but nevertheless they have considerable nutritive value.

9. Some Asiatic Milk-Products.

By DAVID HOOPER.

At the March Meeting of the Asiatic Society, a specimen was exhibited by Mr. Burkill of dried cheese among a collection of curious products found in a Lepcha's medicine bag. The substance was light brown or ivory coloured, hard, tough and horny in consistence, with a slight rancid odour and taste. It occurred in cakes 21 inches square and half an inch in thickness, several of them being strung together by means of a string passing through holes in the centre. It was said to have been prepared from yak's milk. Dr. Hope, of the Indian Tea Association, has met with the same article at Kalimpong where it is used by Tibetans. A similar substance was received a few years ago in the Indian Museum from Baluchistan under the name of krut. This was a preparation of milk, and as a food was credited with sustaining properties. This substance has been known for a long time and is frequently used in countries bordering on Northern India, and since it is not described in modern works on animal and dairy products, I have endeavoured to bring together a short account of its distribution. manufacture and composition.

In Richardson's Persian Dictionary, revised by Francis Johnson in 1829, karut is termed dried oxygal. About seventy years ago Mr. C. Masson' gave an interesting account of its

preparation and uses :-

"Shelanch of the Brahuis, or krut of the Afghans, is another preparation from milk (from ewes and she-goats). It is made by boiling butter-milk until the original quantity is reduced one half. The thickened fluid is then placed in a bag of hair or wool and suffered to drain exposed to the solar heat. When the draining ceases the mass in the bag is formed into small dumps, which are dried into hardness in the sun. When required for use, these dumps are pounded and placed in warm water, where they are worked by the hands until dissolved. The thickened fluid is then boiled with a share of roghan (ghi), and provides a meal by having bread saturated in it. This is a favourite article of food in Afghanistan and Western Persia. The Afghan preparation excels the Brahui. It is a convenient food for travellers, being easy of transport and readily served."

Dr. J. E. T. Aitchison visited these regions in 1890 and has described ² the so-called cheese of the country in some detail. He defines it as dried oxygal or curd from sour buttermilk, and gives the vernacular terms as karut, kurut, māstwā.

¹ A Journey to Kalat, 1843, p. 436.

Notes on Products of Western Afghanistan and N. E. Persia, p. 112

māstāwa. The curd is prepared by rendering buttermilk sour by adding to it some karut, or the dregs of some stale buttermilk; it is then placed over the fire until half the liquid is evaporated, and then strained or compressed by the hands, or placed under a weight until the whole of the whey is pressed out. In the Kuram Valley the curd is expressed by placing it between two slabs of fresh bark from Deodar trees, with a large stone on the top. The whey so removed is called ao-karut, and the compressed curd, which is afterwards exposed to the heat of the sun to be dried, is called karut. Dr. Aitchison adds: "It is usually to be seen in pieces of an irregular shape the size of the fist, of a grey-brown colour, and of an apparently sandy consistency, covered with finger marks, the impression left on it in trying to squeeze out the last drops of whey; in consistency it is much harder than any ordinary cheese. Among the nomads, and in all households where butter is made, there karut is largely prepared, and by them traded with throughout the whole country. It is excessively acid, and tastes as if it were made of very acid vinegar. It is largely used in the diet of the people. A piece of it is broken into a basin of milk, and the milk is drunk when it has become sour, which it does in a few minutes; or a small piece is mixed in water, and this acidulated water is drunk with the food; most of the meat stews have karut thrown into them to aid in softening the usually tough meat of these parts; or it is eaten as a condiment along with bread, as we do cheese among the very poor."

In the Baluchistan Gazetteer references are made to the use of *krut* as an article of food in the Quetta-Pishin and upper Zhob districts, where it occurs as cakes made of boiled whey to which salt has been added. An infusion of *krut* or boiled whey, known as *krut ghori*, is sometimes poured over bread to which boiling ghee is added. All Afghans have a voracious appetite, and the addition of this delicacy will enable a male adult to eat as much as two pounds of bread at one meal. In the Makran district *shilanch* is the name given to the residue of evaporated whey, and therefore contains soluble milk sugar as well as the casein or insoluble portion of the milk.

A correspondent in Jhang, Punjab, informs me that krut is not made in that province, and is only used by travellers going on a long journey. It is made in Baluchistan from the milk of cows, buffaloes, and sheep, but not from that of the camel. The only solid preparation of milk known in the Punjab is made by boiling down milk to a curdy consistence; this substance is called khoah and is used by makers of sweetmeats.

In Kashmir we are told ' that "The Gujars and Pathans of the Lolab make a kind of cheese which they call milk bread."

Lawrence, Valley of Kashmir, 1895, 360.

Travellers in Tibet and Mongolia frequently speak of chura or dried cheese prepared from yak's milk as an article of diet among the people. Mr. W. W. Rockhill refers to it in the account of his interesting travels in 1891 and 1892, and distinguishes between chura (dried curd), ti (a mixture of butter, sugar and chura), djo or tarak (sour milk) and pima (cream cheese). It is therefore a preparation of casein similar to the karut of Western Asia. Chura is also a substance of great antiquity in Upper Asia, and Rockhill furnishes an interesting extract from Rubruk² as showing that it was used by the Mongols when the first account of them was written. "Residuum lac quod remauet post butirum, permittunt acescere quantum acrius fieri potest, et bulliunt illud, et coagulatur bulliendo, et coagulum illud siccant ad solem, et efficitur durum sicut scoria ferri, quod recondunt in saccis contra hyemen. Tempore hyemali, quando deficit eis (Moal) lac, ponunt illud acre coagulum, quod ipsi vocant grice (griut aut grint), in utre, et super infundunt aquam calidam, et concutiunt fortiter donec illud resolvatur in aqua, que ex illo efficitur tota acetosa, et illam aquam bibunt loco lactis." Here the coagulum of acidulous whey is separated and dried in the sun. The cakes are hard, they retain their virtues for long periods, and when required for use they are placed in warm water where they disintegrate on agitation, and the liquid is taken as milk.

The sample of dried cheese found in the Lepcha's medicine bag on the Nepal Frontier was a preparation of this kind. It had the appearance and odour of cheese, but it would be described by experts as harder and drier than any fromage maigre met with in Switzerland.

Submitted to analysis it was found to have the composition of a dried skim cheese. No. 2 is the analysis of a sample of *karut* kindly forwarded by Mr. J. Cumming, of the Quetta Museum.

			No. 1.	No. 2.
	Moisture		9.0	8.8
	Fat		3.0	7.1
	Casein		74.4	58.0
	Sugar, etc.		7.0	8.7
•	Lactic acid	• •	traces	1.4
	Ash	• •	6.6	16.0
			100.0	100.0
	Nitrogen		9.87	7.70
	Phosphoric an	hydride	2.93	1.87

¹ Rockhill, Journey through Mongolia and Tibet, 1894, 176, 278.

Rubruk, Itinerarium (1253), 229.

The case in in No. 1, calculated from the nitrogen, amounted to 62.2 per cent. By adopting the method of Trillat and Santon (Compt. rend. 1906, 143, 61—63) it rose to 80 per cent (with the ash) agreeing with the above figures. No. 2 contains about 10 per cent of common salt. The phosphoric anhydride is combined with calcium forming a natural constituent of case in.

The relation of this case in compound to the preparations of curd made in this country from milk was considered worthy of investigation. In Bengal there is a caste of Dahiyars or milkmen, who prepare curds and butter, as distinct from Gowalas who keep cattle and sell milk. These curdmen live together and the products are often used in the manufacture of sweetmeats. In "Hartley House," a story written in Calcutta during the time of Warren Hastings, the author refers to "one whole street" of shops for selling curds, as a proof of their great consumption and value in the East. At present the Western side of Bow-Bazar is occupied by the traders.

There are two dairy products referred to in Bengal as

curds, named chhana and dahi, dozi or dadhi.

Chhana is prepared as follows: Milk is placed in an earthen vessel and put on the fire to boil. While still hot a spoonful of lemon juice, tamarind juice or a little stale dahi is introduced into the milk. The vessel is then removed from the fire, and in about 15 or 20 minutes the curd or chhana will be found to have separated from the whey.

Dahi is produced by adding an acid to milk, and when this is churned and the butter globules all removed, what is left is known as ghol dahi or butter milk. It readily ferments, and forms a thick acidulous cooling drink, vendible at a moderate

cost.

Three samples of chhana from the Calcutta market, prepared in different villages, were examined with the following results:—

•		1	2	3
Water		62.76	57 ·95	$62 \cdot 45$
Fat		18.78	21.12	19.80
Casein	• •	16.20	18.43	15.63
Milk sugar	••	· 49	.53	·37
Lactic acid	• •	· 3 6	.31	.50
Ash	• •	1.41	1.66	1.25
		100.00	100.00	100.00
Phosphoric anhydric	le	.52	·65	•57

This substance has the properties and composition of a rich cream, with a pleasant acidulous taste. It contains twice as much casein as average European cream and a lower proportion of fat. If deprived of its moisture, it would afford a

residue containing half its weight of butter-fat -- chhana, therefore, could not be used for preparing a substance like karut.

With regard to dahi, the following analyses represent the

composition of two Calcutta samples:-

			1	2
Water			90.92	89.58
Fat			2.06	2.40
Casein			2.78	3.15
Milk sugar			3.18	3.70
Lactic acid			.60	· 5 7
Ash			· 4 6	.60
		100.00		100.00
Phosphoric	anhydride		·14	·19

The alcohol and carbonic acid present were not estimated. The liquid has the composition of butter-milk in which the lactic fermentation had developed. When evaporated to dryness it left a light brown acid cake having a pleasant taste. It is probable that a liquid of the description of dahi, containing less fat, is the mother substance from which the dried karut and chura are prepared, by heating and removing the coagulum of casein and drying it in the sun.

10. Plantarum Novarum in Herbario Horti Regii Calcuttensis Cognitarum Decas.

Auctore

W. W. SMITH.

ORITREPHES SEPTENTRIONALIS, W. W. Smith. Species Anplectri pallentis, Bl., facie. Ob stamina æqualia cum genere Anplectro non quadrat. Oritrephes pulchra, Ridley (Journ. Linn. Soc. vol. 38, p. 309), hujus generis adhuc unica species cognita, in Herbario Kewensi et in Herbario Calcuttensi deficitur; sed ex descriptione hæc nova species ejusdem generis haberi potest, et foliis omnino glabris minoribus, filamentis glabris, fructu minore distinguenda.

Frutex ramosus. Caulis juvenis teres, flexuosus, glaber, nodis paulum crassatis. Folia opposita, ad 5 mm. petiolata, elliptica vel lanceolata, caudato-acuminata ad 15-25 mm., 6-10 cm. longa, 1.5-3 cm. lata, basi cuneata vel subrotundata, margine paululum incurva, undulata, remote serratulata vel in eodem specimine subintegra, 5-nervia: duo marginales nervi obscurissimi: tres intermedii infra elevati, nervulis secundariis fere horizontalibus. Paniculæ axillares et terminales, foliis breviores, graciles, patentes, glabræ, paucifloræ (1-5). pedicellis + 1 cm. longis erectis, bracteis minutis subulatis. Calyx 5 mm. longus. 2.5 mm. latus, cylindricus, glaber, leprosus, limbo brevi 4-lobo Petala 4, obovata, obtusa, glabra, 6 mm. longa. undulato. 4 mm. lata. Stamina 8, æqualia, similia; antheræ 6-8 mm. longæ, apices albidos versus attenuatæ, falcatæ, poro terminali. basibus perbreviter hastatæ et eodem loco parvo circulari processu dorsali onustæ, filamentis 5 mm. longis glabris. Stylus 1 cm. longus, stigmate punctiformi. Ovarium 4-loculare, fere ad basin tubi chartacei calvois liberum, vertice depresso-concavum. Fructus baccatus, globoso-ovoideus, ad apicem constrictus, 5 mm. diametiens, leprosus; semina plurima, placentis axillaribus suffulta, angulata, subcochleata, 1 mm. longa, nitentia.

Burma superior:—In montibus kachinensibus, Shaik Mokim; prope Bhamo, ad 4000 ped. alt. Cubitt, 375A.; apud pagos shanenses australes, MacGregor, 751. China:—in provincia Yunnan, Henry, 11705 in Herb. Kew.

SENECIO BILIGULATUS, W. W. Smith Species sectionis Eusenecionis inter himalaicas congeneres Senecioni gracifloro, D.C.,

proxima; foliis sessilibus auriculatis, floribus biligulatis distinguenda.

Caulis 60-90 cm. altus, erectus, flexuosus, simplex, striatus, minute fulvo-pubescens, infra mox glabrescens, inflorescentia late corymbosa terminali. Folia caulina 5-8, superiora 7-12 cm. longa, 1-3 cm. lata, pinnatifida, runcinata, amplexicaulia magnis denticulatis auriculis, sessilia, lobo terminali sæpius 8 cm. longo 2-5 cm. lato deltoideo-sagittato irregulariter dentata, supra subscabride pubescentia, infra pubescentia; inferiora similia, sed frequenter interrupte-pinnata, 6-12 foliolis instructa: folia radicalia esse possint longe-petiolata. cetera caulinis haud dissimilia. Corymbæ permultæ, parvifloræ, rotundatæ. Capitulum 4 mm. longum, 4-5 flores gerens, quorum duo ligulati; bracteolæ 5-7 viridæ apicibus nigris, 5 mm. longa: involucri phyllaria 5-6 lineari-oblonga, obtusa, glabra, viridia, fere ad nigros apices cohærentia, 3 mm. longa; ligulæ 3 mm. longæ, 2—3-dentatæ, lineares; floris tubularis pars campanulata partem angustam subæquans. Stamina ecaudata. Pappus uniseriatus, albidus, duplo longior achenio anguste oblongo glabro, apice annulato.

NEPALIA:—sine locis, sine altitudine, Scully, 140, 225; SIKKIM:—apud hospitium Changu et prope viculum Kapoop et apud castra Gnatong ad 12—13000 ped. alt. Smith, 4223, 4245, 4277, 4325; prope Laghep et sub faucibus Tanka-La dictis 11—13000 ped. alt. Ribu et Rhomoo, 4548, 4703, in fructu; sine numero, Kingii mercenarius. Typi in herbario Calcuttensi et herbario Kewensi conservati.

SENECIO LAGOTIS, W. W. Smith. Species sectionis Ligulariæ ex affinitate Senecionis altaici, Schultz-Bip., inter congeneres himalaicas claro distincta, foliis integris generis Bupleuri eis persimilibus.

Planta perennis, robusta, glabra nisi in inflorescentia, glauca, ad basin reliquiis vetustorum foliorum fibrillosis induta. Caulis 45—60 cm. altus, 4—5 mm. diametiens, singulus, multis lineis percursus, racemo terminali. Folia radicalia 2—6; petiolus ad 6 cm. longus, æqualiter ad 4 mm. alatus; lamina ad 15 cm. longa, ad 4 cm. lata, oblanceolata, in petiolum sensim attenuata, sub obtusa, integra; folia caulina 5—9, oblonga vel obevata, 7—8 cm. longa, 2—3 cm. lata, rarius 12 cm × 6 cm., obtusa vel acuta, amplexicaulia, stricta, ea Bupleuri Candollei, Wall., in memoriam ducentia, pulchre reticulata venis translucentibus. Flores in capitula nigriora aspectu nutantia multiflora compositi, racemo simplici nigro-pubescenti paucis capillis albis. Pedunculi ad 1.5 cm., bracteis lanceolatis vel subulatis 1—3 cm. longis. Capitulum 2—3 cm. diametiens, robustum, basi lata, bracteolis 2—3 subulatis, phyllariis 12—16 lanceolatis vel lineari-lanceo-

latis uniseriis \pm 1 cm. longis acutis carnosulis viridibus apice villosulis. Liquice 12—16, minores ab 1 cm., ad 4 mm. latæ, lanceolatæ, flavæ; floris tubulosi 3 mm. longitudo. Antheræ ecaudatæ. Achenium 5 mm. longum, 1.5 mm. latum, anguste oblongum, infra subattenuatum, 5—6-striatum, pappo perbrevi 1 mm. longo exiguo scabrido sordide albido.

SIKKIM:—In montibus pluviosis Chola dictis; Too-Koo La, Kingii mercenarius, 4324; apud Kapoop, in valle Dikchu, prope hospitium Changu circ. 13000 ped. alt. Smith, 3414, 3516, 3748; ibidem Ribu et Rhomoo, 4380, maturo fructu.

SENECIO KINGIANUS, W. W. Smith. Idem est Senecio vaginatus, King M. S. in Herb. Calc. Species sectionis Ligularia Senecionis pachycarpi, Clarke, affinis: ab ea specie et a Senecione amplexicauli, Wall., separata caule velutino, capitulo augusto paucifloro, pappo albido.

Planta herbacea, perennis, robusta, 60—90 cm. alta. Cauli erectus, superne late corymboso-ramosus, 1-2 cm. diametiens. denso minuto velutino tomento indutus. Folia radicalia 1-3. orbicularia, ita profunde cordata ut peltata videantur, 20-35 cm. diametientia, petiolo 40-50 cm. longo haud alato, subregulariter denticulata, denticulis indurato-mucronatis, supra. glabra, infra plus minus pubescentia nervis velutinis. Folia caulina 2-3, alternata, orbicularia vel late reniformia, 10-30 cm. diametientia, denticulata ut radicalia; vagina magna velutina, 6—10 cm. longa, multum dilatata, etiam usque ad 12 cm. alata, nonnunquam suum folium excedens; petiolus 2-4 cm. longus, interdum brevissimus. Corymbi multi, late ramosi, longe pedunculati, velutini. Capitulum angusta basi cuneatum, 1 cm. longum 3-4 mm. latum, floribus plerumque 5-7. Bracteæ et bracteolæ 3-5, subulatæ, 1-4 mm. longæ. Phyllaria oblonga, subobtusa, rarius acuta, margine parum scarioso. Ligulæ plerumque tres, 10-15 mm. longæ, lineares breviter 3-4 denticulate. Achenium 5-6 mm. longum, anguste oblongum, pappo breviore primo albido deinde nonnunquam rufescente.

Sikkim:—In regione pluviosa circ. 11—13000 ped. alt., apud hospitium Changu dictum, Smith, 3131, 3401, 4292 et Ribu, 4556; apud castra Gnatong, Gammie, 1327; in faucibus Patang-La dictis, Kingii mercenarius, 4410. Nomen specificum datum in honore Georgii Kingii equitis qui primus indicavit (in scheda speciminis manci sub nomine nudo S. vaginatus—nomine præterea pre-occupato) speciem esse novam, habitu et floribus ad Senecionem Mortoni, Clarke, spectantem sed foliis longe diversam. Plantas cum S. Mortoni nascentes in ilsdem locis vidi.

SENECIO CHOLA, W. W. Smith. Species Senecioni quinquelobo, Hook. f. et Thoms., proxima; foliis 9—11 lobatis, inflorescentia robusta, phyllariis obtusis, pappo rubescente ita differt ut vix eadem haberi possit.

Caulis erectus, simplex, 80—100 cm. altus, glaber vel parce albo-villosulus, racemo robusto ramoso terminali. Folia radicalia delapsa; caulina 6—10, plerumque 8—12 cm. longa, 7—10 cm. lata. ovata, cordata, ad quintam partem 9—11-lobulata, inter lobulos indurato-denticulata, carnosula, infra glauca, interdum omnino glabra, interdum utrinque parce pilosula, 4—9 cm. petiolata (plerumque 8 cm.), parvis auriculis orbicularibus vel ovatis deciduis adpressis. Racemus elongatus, parce araneoso-pubescens, ramis robustis 4—7 capitula gerentibus. Capitula mediocria 1—3 bracteolis instructa. Phyllaria 5—6, oblonga, obtusa, 5 mm. longa, glabra perlatis scariosis marginibus. Flores in capitulo 4—6, omnes tubulosi; floris pars campanulata parti angustæ subæquans. Achenium 2 mm. longum, angustum, striatum; pappus rubescens achenio multum longior.

SIKKIM:—In valle Chaking Chu dicta in montibus pluviosis cholaensibus circ. 12—13000 ped. alt. Smith, 4134, Ribu et Rhomoo, 4501, 4680.

Non sine hesitatione quatuor novas species Saussurearum proposui. Mihi aliquatenus magistri sunt C. B. Clarkius et G. Kingius qui multum laborem in Compositis indicis dederunt. Duo cl. viri Saussuream (cui nunc nomen nimborum est—vide infra) in affinitate S. piptatheræ posuerunt; Kingius S. fibrosam novam speciem esse in scheda scripsit. De S. Pantlingiana et S. Laneana non dubitavi.

Saussurea fibrosa, King, MS. Forsan varietas bhutanica polymorphæ Saussureæ Sughoo, Clarke; sed ita habitu diversa ut el. Kingius nomen S. fibrosam in scheda dederit. In hoc genere variabili hæc planta proprius species distincta militatur, a Saussurea Sughoo multis minoribus agglomeratis capitulis separata.

Planta perennis, acaulis, polycephala, radice multis fibrillis in funem ad 30 cm. longum 3—4 cm. latum mire contorta. Folia 8—12, omnia radicalia, ad 3 cm. petiolata, 8—12 cm. longa, 2—3 cm. lata, anguste oblonga, runcinato-pinnatifida, segmentis

A species very closely allied to Senecio quinquelobus H.f. and T. but of very different aspect in the field. S. quinquelobus is however as Clarke pointed out in Compositae Indicae, a very polymorphic species, as regards the leaves. I have collected it in various parts of Sikkim including the Chola Range; but none of its forms approach the Chaking Chu plant. The points of difference are in my opinion too many to permit of its being conspecific.

mucronato-dentatis, supra scabride pubescentia, subtus albidotomentosa. Capitula 4—12, congesta, 5—15 mm. pedunculata, iis magnitudine multum minora Saussureæ Sughoo. Phyllaria lanceolata, longe acuminata, basi ovata, subaraneosopilosa. Receptaculi setæ acheniis longiores. Antherarum caudæ lanatæ. Achenium oblongum, 1 mm. longum, glabrum nec muricatum; pappi albidi series interior 1 cm. longa, plumosa; exterior multum brevior, plumosa.

BHOTAN:—Apud Kupchee, Dungboo, 260.

SAUSSUREA PANTLINGIANA, W. W. Smith. Species apud Corymbiferas posita, Saussureæ piptatheræ, Edgew., affinis, sed minor; foliis loriformibus fere integris, laxo corymbo facile distinguenda.

Planta perennis, pro sectione inter minores, radice fibrosis foliorum reliquiis obtecta. Caulis 20--30 cm. altus, infra simplex, glaber, corymbo late-ramoso sed paucicephalo terminali. Folia radicalia 0-6, in petiolum 2-3 cm. longum sensim attenuata, 5-10 cm. longa, 8-12 mm. lata, lineari-lanceolata, remote denticulata vel subintegra, acuta, apiculata, supra glabra rugosocoriacea, infra dense niveo-tomentosa, costa lata straminea; caulina 4-10, radicalibus subsimilia sed amplexicaulia, sessilia, subdecurrentia, caule ideo interdum sub-alato. Capitula 2-10 inter angustiora gracilliora, 2 cm. longa, 7-8 mm. lata, minute pubescentia. Phyllaria ovato-lanceolata, acuminata. Receptaculi setæ acheniis longiores. Antherarum caudæ lanatæ. Achenium læve, oblongum, paululum angulatum. Pappi series interior plumosa, exterior brevior, parca, setosa.

SIKKIM:—In regione septentrionali prope viculum Tallum Samdong dictum, et apud Yakthang, ad 12000 ped. alt. *Prainii mercenarius*, 213, *Ribu et Rhomoo*, 2968. Nomen memoriæ Roberti Pantlingii Floræ sikkimensis olim clari studentis.

SAUSSURBA NIMBORUM, W. W. Smith. Species apud Corymbiferas posita, Saussureæ Pantlingianæ, W. W. Smith, affinis; eodem habitu et eodem capitulo sed minor; paucis capitulis, foliis caulinis petiolatis grosse dentatis distincta.

Saussurea piptathera, Edgew., in "Compositis Indicis" a Cl. C. B. Clarkio in parte (speciminibus sikkimensibus) est eadem. Cl. Hookerius in Fl. Brit. Ind. Vol. III, p. 372 sub Saussurea piptathera, Edgew., ea specimina evidenter non citavit. Saussurea piptathera ex Himalaya occidentali foliis sessilibus auriculatis est sine dubio alia haud proxima species. S. Pantlingiana et S. nimborum sunt propinquæ, intermediis tamen omnino carentes.

Planta perennis, pro sectione inter minores, radice fibrosis foliorum reliquiis obtecta, in forma normali 15-20 cm. alta, frequenter nana, 1-2 cm. alta (specimina Hookeriana in Herb. Calc.), etiam acaulis et reducta ad unum capitulum et 1-3 folia radicalia. Caulis simplex, striatus, parce furfuraceo-pubescens. 1-4 capitulis terminatus. Folia radicalia 1-4, in petiolum 1-5 cm. longum attenuata, 2-9 cm. longa, 5-3 cm. lata, elliptica vel oblanceolata, grossius irregulariter dentata, dentibus apiculatis, etiam sub-runcinata, acuta, apiculata, coriacea, supra minute scabrida, subtus niveo-tomentosa, costa straminea; caulina ()-4, radicalibus subsimilia sed angustiora; superiora sessilia nec decurrentia. Phyllaria ovato-lanceolata, acuminata. Receptaculi setæ acheniis longiores. Antherarum caudæ lanato-laceræ. Achenium læve, oblongum, paululum angulatum, Pappi series interior plumosa, exterior brevior, parca, setosa.

SIKKIM:—ad 12—16000 ped alt. Hooker; in valle Sebu ad 11000 ped. alt. Gammie 1122; sub faucibus Jelep-La dictis, Kingii mercenarius; inter Thango viculum et Sittong, Prain.

SAUSSURFA LANEANA, W. W. Smith. Inter himalaicas congeneres species *Senecionis Lappæ*. Clarke, valde affinis sed minor, foliis albo-tomentosis, caudis antherarum lanatis facile distinguenda.

Planta perennis, robusta, radice crassa reliquiis vaginarum multis induta. Caulis 60-90 cm. altus, simplex, 5-10 capitulis aggregatis terminatus, fulvo vel albido-araneoso-tomentosus. plus minus bialatus. Folia radicalia 1-3, 20-30 cm. longa, 6-8 cm. lata, inæqualiter in 5-7 lobos triangulares runcinato-pinnatifida, petiolo 6-9 cm longo latissime alato (ad 7 mm) lobo terminali 5-7 cm. longo, subregulariter triangulari-denticulata, denticulis apiculatis, supra sparse scabride puberula, subtus dense lanata; caulina 7-9, radicalibus subsimilia, minora, superiora sessilia, decurrentia. Capitula foliis bracteata, perbreviter pedunculata (+5 mm.), robusta, 2 cm. longa, 1 cm. lata. fere in globum congesta. Phyllaria permulta, pluriseriata, elliptico-lanceolata, elongato acuminata, tomentosa, in fructu nonnunquam subglabra paucis dorsalibus pilis, nigrescentia. Receptaculi setæ multæ, lineares albidæ, ad 7 mm. longæ achenia conspicue excedentes. Antherarum caudæ longæ, lanatæ. Achenium 3-4 mm. longum, angustum, glabrum, apice annulatum, pappo 1 cm. longo, plumoso, uniseriali, fusco.

SIKKIM:—In regione orientali prope hospitium Changu dictum, et apud viculum Kapoop, et apud Ningbil et sub faucibus Chola, ad 11—14000 ped. alt., Smith, 3920, 4130, 4263,

Ribu et Rhomoo, 4549, sine numero, Kingii mercenarius. Cl. G. T. Lane curatoris Horti Botanici Regalis Calcuttensis honori nomen specificum datum. Typi in Herbario Calcuttensi et in Herbario Kewensi conservati.

VERATRUM SHANENSE, W. W. Smith. Species ad Veratrum Maximowiczii, Baker, spectans, sed robustior; rachidibus sinuosis nec strictis, pedicellis quam floribus brevioribus, segmentis perianthii ovatis obtusis distinguenda. Cum nullo Veratro in Herbarjo Kewensi vel Herbarjo Calcuttensi congruit.

Radix ignota. Caulis erectus, (media pars cum inflorescentia in scheda adest), ut videtur circiter 120 cm. altus, (inflorescentia enim ad 45 cm. attinet), 10-12 mm. latus, robustus, striatus, basin versus glabrescens, apicem versus apud inflorescentiam flocculoso-puberulus. Folia intermedia (cætera desunt) ad 50 cm. longa, 5-6 cm. lata, anguste lineari-lanceolata, utrinque attenuata, vix petiolata sed in vaginam amplexicaulem contracta, utrinque glabra, nervis prominentibus. Panicula ramosa, angusta, ad 45 cm. longa; racemi ad 10 cm. longi, simplices vel iterum divisi, + 20-flori, sinuoso-flexiles nec stricti, flocculoso-pubescentes, bracteis 1-3 cm. longis ovatis-acuminatis instructi. Bracteæ sub pedicellis + 5 mm. longæ, ovatæ vel lanceolatæ, cymbiformes. Pedicelli 3-4 mm. longi. Flores polygami; perianthii segmenta sex, fere libera, (viridula?) late ovata, obtusa, basi breviter unguiculata, integra, patentia, 5 mm longa, 4 mm lata, 7-nervia. Stamina 2 mm longa, ad basin perianthii inserta, apice curvata, antheris reniformibus transverse extrorsum dehiscentibus. Ovarium glabrum, carpellis tribus tantum apice liberis et in stylos tres valde aduncos excurrentibus, seminibus immaturis planis disciformibus.

BURMA:—In montibus apud pagos shanenses, MacGregor, 826. Altitudo ignota.

Intra regionem Indo-Burmanicam Veratrum aliud adhuc repertum non est.

11. A new Gentian and two new Swertias from the East Himalaya.

By W. W. SMITH.

The three new species described below were obtained while on a tour in South-East Sikkim during July-August 1910, under the auspices of the Botanical Survey of India. Plates 1 and 2 belong to this paper. Plate 1 represents Gentiana pluviarum and Swertia Burkilliana; plate 2 represents Swertia ramosa.

GENTIANA PLUVIARUM, W. W. Smith. Inter Chondrophyllas ex affinitate Gentianæ squarrosæ, Ledeb

Planta annua, 2—4 cm. alta, omnino glabra, caulibus 1—40, sæpius 8—10, gracilibus subdecumbentibus. Folia radicalia 4—6, rosulata, 5—6 mm. longa, 2—3 mm. lata, ovata, subacuta, sub anthesin marcescentia (inter gramina celata), obscure 3-nervia; folia caulina 3—5 paria, 1—1·5 mm. longa, linearia, recurvata, apice apiculata, breviter vaginato-connata, internodis multum breviora Flores solitarii, perrarius duo, terminales, tetrameri, albi. Calyx tubulosus, quatuor-dentatus; tubus usque ad 2 mm. longus, 1·5 mm. diametiens, teres; dentes 1 mm. longi, lineares, recurvati foliis persimiles. Corollæ tubus 3 mm. longus, 1 mm. diametiens; lobi breves, quadrati, integri; plicarum lobuli lobis angustiores sed fere æquilongi. Stamina vix ad fauces pertinent. Ovarium ovoideum breviter stipitatum; semina irregulariter elliptica.

Sikkim:—In regione pluviosa orientali apud ovile Chamnago et apud hospitium Changu haud procul a faucibus Cho-la dictis, circ. 12-13000 ped. alt., Smith, 3527, 3662, 3907. Typi in herbariis Horti Botanici Regalis Calcuttensis et Horti Botanici Regalis Kewensis conservati.

SWERTIA RAMOSA, W. W. Smith. Inter Ophelias tetrameras; habitu nescio quo modo Swertiam bimaculatam, Hook. f. et Thoms., in memoriam reducit; forsan ex affinitate Swertiæ dilatatæ, Clarke, melius posita est.

Herba robusta, subdiffusa, ad 15 cm. alta, glabra, interdum ramosa, ramis subdecumbentibus fere ex radice sat crassa natis, interdum (rarius) singulo. Caules 1—4 subquadrangularis, sub nodis alati. Folia radicalia multa, 3—8 cm. longa,

1—2 cm. lata, lanceolata vel oblanceolata, nonnunquam obovata, in brevem petiolum sensim attenuata, obtusiuscula, sub anthesin persistentia sed nigrescentia; folia caulina opposita nec connata, radicalibus similia, ad 5 cm. longa, 12—18 mm. lata, 3—5-nervia. omnia ramos axilligerentia. Pedunculorum longorum in apice flores 3—5 nascentes formam umbellatam simulant, vero unus terminalis et 2—4 ultimis foliis per paria axillantes, etiam in medio ramo 2—4 positi, sat conspicui, testibus incolis cœrulei; marcescentes tantum vidi. Sepala quatuor, late ovata, nonnunquam fere orbicularia, obtusa, 6—8 mm. longa, 5 mm. lata, 5—7-nervia. Petala paulum sepalis majora, elliptica, unifoveolata; foveola magna longefimbriata, squamā fimbriatā obtecta. Ovarium maturescens ovoideum, 8 mm. longum, stylo fere nullo, seminibus multis fere sphæricis.

SIKKIM:—In montibus pluviosis apud hospitium Karponang dietum circ. 9000 alt., Smith, 3032.

SWERTIA BURKILLIANA, W. W. Smith. Inter Eu-Swertias ponenda; Swertiae Thomsoni, Clarke, proxima, sed floribus minoribus tetrameris claro distincta.

Planta robusta, erecta, glabra. Radix perennis, lignosa, 10—12 cm. longa, 2—3 cm. diametiens Caulis singulus, 30 cm. altus, subquadrangularis, solidus, subflexuosus. Folia radicalia 4-6; lamina 7-10 cm longa, 2-2.5 cm. lata, petiolo 10-15 cm. longo, elliptica-spathulata, obtusa; folia caulina 3-6 paria quorum sub inflorescentiæ regione 1-2 paria posita, usque ad 9 cm. longa sed sæpius 4-5 cm., usque ad 3 cm. lata, sessilia, elliptica vel elliptico-ovata, obtusa, basi non connata, 10-12-nervia. Flores permulti, pro sectione Euswertiarum minores, in cymis densis paniculatis, terminalibus et in foliis superioribus axillantibus compositi; pedunculi ad 4 cm. longi, pedicellis 1-2 mm. longis; in extremis cymis flores 1-3 collocati. Sepala 4, triangulari-lanceolata, 1.5-2 mm. longa, viridia. Petala 5-7 mm. longa, 3 mm. lata, oblonga, obtusa, late patentia, sordide albida multis lineis maculisque purpureis; dimidium inferius basi excepta glandula magna bi-emarginata viridi nuda fere omnino obtectum. Stamina petalis paulum breviora, filamentis petalorum more coloratis. Ovarium perbreve, ad glandulam non pertinens, stylo brevissimo; fructus ovoideus, 1-1.5 cm. longus. Semina matura 5 mm. longa, 3-4 mm. lata, disciformia, multa, æqualiter ad 1 mm. alata, aureofurfuracea.

Sikkim:—Ad ripas lacus Changu dicti et apud Fieunggong 12-13000 ped. alt. Smith, 3160, 3556, 3872, 4244. Nomen descriptoris multarum Gentianacearum clarissimi I. H. Burkill huic speciei datum.

Vol. VII, No. 3.] A new Gentian and two new Swertiae.
[N.S.]

Restat ut meo amico I. H. Burkill qui harum specierum affinitates mihi indicavit gratias justissimas agam.

Tabularum explicatis.

Tabula I:—7 Swertiæ Burkillianæ planta flos, ovarium,—figuræ i, ii, iii.

Gentianæ pluviarum planta, et fructus cum calyce, et

corolla cum staminibus, figuræ iv, v, vi.

Tabula II :—Swertiæ ramosæ planta et flos.

12. Swertias chinenses quatuor Novas, ex herbario G. Bonati, descripsit

I. H. BURKILL.

SWERTIA (Pleurogyne) Bonatiana. Planta annua, glabra, ramosa, ad 15 cm. alta; rami ex tertio et superioribus internodiis quadrangulares, anguste quadri-alati, purpurei. Folia lanceolata, sessilia, apice acuta vel acutiuscula, trinervia, nervis lateralibus obscuris, majora ad 15 mm. longa et 5 mm. lata. Flores numerosissimi, conspicui; pedicelli ad 10 mm. longi, angustissime quadri-alati. Sepala quinque, fere ad basin libera, linearia, acutissima, ad 9 mm. longa, obscure trinervia, parte connata ad 1 mm. longa. Petala fere libera, elliptico-ovata, ad 14 mm. longa, ad 6 mm. lata, (teste Ducloux) alba cœruleo-striata, ad basin ut videtur bifoveolata. Stamina ad basin corollæ affixa; filamenta 5 mm. longa; antheræ dorsi-fixæ, 4 mm. longæ; pollen tetrahedroideo-globosum, læve. Ovarium 9 mm. longum; stigma ad tertiam partem basin versus descendens.

CHINA AUSTRALIS. In montibus provinciæ Yunnan prope Yunnansen, legit *Ducloux*, 526. Floret mense Decembri.

SWERTIA (Ophelia) DUCLOUXII. Planta 50-60 cm. alta, erecta, annua, pyramidato-fastigiata, glabra. Caules quadrangulares, virides, anguste quadri-alati. Folia inferiora ad 30 mm. longa, late lanceolata, ad 6 mm. lata, superiora ovata breviora, omnia acuta; nervus medialis conspicuus; nervi laterales duo inconspicui. Flores numerosissimi, pentameri. Calycis tubus 1 mm. longus, infundibuliformis, quinque-angulatus; lobi lanceolati vel lanceolato-ovati, 6 mm. longi, ad 1.5 mm. lati. Corollæ tubus · 5 mm longus; lobi anguste ovati, acutissimi, ad 10 mm. longi, 2.5 mm. lati, bifoveolati; foveolæ 2 mm. longæ, in parte inferiori poculam parvam formantes, et in parte superiori ob membranas laterales setigeras ex cornubus poculæ extensas canaliculatæ. Stamina ad basin corollæ loborum inserta; filamenta 3 mm. longa; antheræ 1.5 mm. longæ, dorsifixæ; pollen tetrahedroideo-globosum. Ovarium 7 mm longum: stylus perbrevis; stigmatis lobi latiores quam longi-Semina subglobosa, 25 mm. diametro, subtuberculata.

CHINA AUSTRALIS. In montibus boream versus urbis Yunnansen, legit Ducloux, 933. Floret mense Septembri.

SWERTIA (Ophelia) ROSEA. Planta annua, erecta, pyramidalis, glabra. Caulis quadrangularis, anguste quadri-alatus. nigro-purpureus. Folia petiolata, elliptico-lanceolata, ad 20 mm, longa, ad 8 mm, lata, trinervia, acuta vel subacuminata: petiolus ad 4 mm. longus. Flores magni, 30 mm. diametro. (teste Ducloux) rosei, pentameri. Sepala libera, linearia, acuta, ad 11 mm. longa, 1.5 mm. lata. Corollæ tubus 1 mm. longus; lobi ovati, ad 18 mm. longi, 8 mm. lati, 5-7-nerves, ad basin bifoveolati; foveolæ in parte inferiori poculiformes, supra ob membranas fimbrilliferas ex cornubus pocularum ad 2 mm. extensas canaliculatæ. Stamina ad basin loborum inserta: filamenta 6 mm. longa; antheræ dorsifixæ, 3 mm. longæ; pollen subellipsoideo-globosum. Ovarium ovoideum, 6 mm. longum, stigma versus angustatum.

CHINA AUSTRALIS. In montibus Tching-chan dictis prope Yunnansen, legit Ducloux, 323. Floret mense Novembri.

SWERTIA PATENS. Planta depressa, forsan perennis, glabra. Radix singula. Caules decumbentes, subquadrangulares, virides. Folia lineari-oblanceolata, ad 45 mm. longa, 3 mm. lata, crassiuscula. Flores conspicui, 4-meri. Sepala libera, ad 15 mm. longa, ex basi ovata 4 mm. lata in acumine lanciformi 6 mm. longo extensa. Corollæ tubus 15 mm. longus: lobi sepalis paullulo breviores, ovati, acuti, ad 13 mm. longi, 5 mm. lati, in parte inferiori bifoveolati; foveolæ conspicuissimæ, in parte inferiori 1 mm. longa poculiformes, in parte superiori ad 2 mm. longa ob marginem poculæ fimbrilligeram indusiatæ. Stamina ad basin corollæ loborum inserta: filamenta 7 mm. longa; antheræ 2 mm. longæ, dorsifixæ; pollen orbiculare. Ovarium ovoideum, gradatim in stylo 1 mm. longo attenuatum.

CHINA AUSTRALIS. Ad Mou-tchou-ka in regione Kiao-kia provinciæ Yunnan, collegit Simeon Ten, 934. Floret mense Julia

13. Descriptions of three new species of Algæ associated with Indian Freshwater Polyzoa.

By PROF. WM. WEST, with notes by N. ANNANDALE, D.Sc.

[The algæ described in this paper were taken in the Sur Lake, near Puri in Orissa, in October 1908, and in Igatpuri Lake in the Western Ghats, Bombay Presidency, in November 1909. The specimens examined by Professor West were preserved in formalin or spirit.—N. A.]

TOLYPOTHRIX LOPHOPODELLOPHILA (W. West), fuscescens, floccosa, trichomatibus pseudoramulisque dense intricatis; cellulis sæpe distinctis, interdum indistinctissimis, quadratis vel aliquo modo longioribus quam latis; vaginis amplis, subirregularibus ad marginem; heterocystis 1—3 ad basin pseudoramulorum, oblongo-rotundatis, diametro 1½—2-plo longioribus, trichomatis diametro paulo crassioribus.

In stagnis cum Lophopodella carteri associata.

[This alga was found coating the stems of shrubs that grew in the water at the edge of Igatpuri Lake. It formed irregular gelatinous masses of a dark green colour. More or less distinctly embedded in these masses were numerous colonies of the polyzoon Lophopodella carteri (Hyatt), a species also found, often gregariously, on the lower surface of stones in the same lake. Those colonies, however, which were associated with the alga were of unusually vigorous growth, occurred in unusually large numbers in a comparatively small space, and did not avoid the light as the species usually appears to do.—N. A.]

Dactylococcopsis pectinatellophila (W. West), cellulis anguste ellipticis, fusiformibus, vel interdum oblique sublanceolatis et subirregularibus, contentu cellularum pallide ærugineis et homogeneis. Lat. cell. $3-5.5 \mu$; long. cell. $8-13 \mu$.

[The cells of this alga were found embedded in the common gelatinous investment of compound colonies of *Pectinatella burmanica* which encased the stems of reeds growing, in very shallow water, in the middle of the Sur Lake near Puri. In life they had a dark green colour. From the biological point of view the main interest of the species lies in the question raised by its occurrence in the gelatinous investing membrane of a species of *Pectinatella*, one of the generic peculiarities of which is the existence of an investment of the kind common to several or many colonies. It has hitherto been

assumed that the investment was produced by the polyzoon, but there seems to be no direct evidence that this is the case, and the question naturally occurs, is not it rather produced by a symbiotic alga? The polyzoon does not appear to possess any special mechanism for its secretion, whereas algæ of the genus Dactylococcopsis are usually contained in a gelatinous mass. I am not aware that any such alga has been described from the Palæarctic species of Pectinatella, but the fact that in their case also the investment has a greenish colour would suggest that one is associated with them.—N. A.]

MICROCYSTIS ORISSICA (W. West); coloniæ subsphæricæ, sordide olivaceæ, $24-40\mu$ lat., interdum 48μ lat.; cellulis subellipsoideis, ærugineis, 0.8-0.9 μ lat., rarius 1.0 μ lat. Coloniæ cum Pectinatella burmanica associatæ.

[The colonies of this alga were found associated, perhaps fortuitously, with the compound colonies of Pectinatella burmanica in the investment of which Dactylococcopsis pectinatellophila occurred, the locality being Sur Lake near Puri, Orissa.—N. A.]

EXPLANATION OF PLATE III.

Figs. 1—5, Tolypothrix lophopodellophila, sp. nov. Fig. 6, Dactylococcopsis pectinatellophila, sp. nov. Figs. 7—9, Microcystis orissica, sp. nov.

14. Note on Sterculia alata Roxb. var. irregularis, remarkable instance of leaf variation.

By W. W. SMITH.

In the Royal Botanic Garden, Sibpur, Calcutta, there is a Sterculia alata which has attained the normal size of the species in this area and which has been known for many years as affording a very striking instance of leaf variation. The tree measures at four feet from the base, just over five feet in circumference and is about 70 feet high. In growth it is not distinguishable from a typical tree of this species and is probably one of a batch of Sterculias planted out at the same time, approximately 40 years ago, the majority of which form an adjoining avenue. The flowers and fruits are quite normal but, whereas the leaves of the ordinary Sterculia alata are cordate, ovate, acute, with an entire or slightly undulating margin, the leaves in this abnormal form present a great variety of shapes and it is difficult to find any two alike. As far as I am aware, the amount of irregularity is without parallel. Crotons show variation on somewhat the same lines but the remarkable feature here is the amount of variation in the leaves of the single tree.

The leaves are palmi-nerved with normally 7 main veins (more rarely 5-6) radiating from the apex of the petiole. Of these the outer two are much weaker than the others. The chief lines of variation are:—

(1) Deep lobing.

(2) Excessive elongation of one lobe, generally that of the central vein but not always so.

(3) Elongation of one lobe with contraction at its base so as in some cases to leave only the midrib and thus cut off a leaflet.

(4) Development of only one half of the leaf—on one side of the midrib only.

(5) Variation in size.

Several of these variations may occur in one and the same leaf. The accompanying illustration (plate 4) gives some idea of the degree of variation. The local name for this tree is the pagla gáchh or mad tree.

Some years ago experiments were made with a view to finding out what percentage of the seeds of this tree produced plants like the parent. The seeds of the first three fruit-bearing years were sown, with the result that 3 to 5 per cent, of

the seedlings showed variation, and about 1 per cent. as great a variation as the mother tree. During these three years the percentage of abnormality apparently rose as noted by Lieut.-Col. Prain to whom I am indebted for the information concerning these experiments. In 1910 the trial of seeds was repeated; out of 100 planted, 91 germinated, and from these 89 healthy potplants were obtained. Of these only six show variation, and of these only two very marked. This gives a higher percentage than was observed in the first fruit-years.

It is impossible to say from the young stages of the plant how far the mature tree will continue, decrease or augment these variations, and experiments on the young trees are being proceeded with. One young tree planted out ten years ago is growing well and promises to be as aberrant in foliage as the original. As nothing has been published regarding this tree, and as it is desirable that the abnormality should be on record, I have written this preliminary note for the consideration of

the members of the Society.

MARCH, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 1st March, 1911, at 9-15 P.M.

COLONEL G. F. A. HARRIS, M.D., I.M.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. I. H. Burkill, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Mr. B. De, Mr. L. L. Fermor, Mr. F. H. Gravely, Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, Mr. D. Hooper, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Mr. J. Insch, Mr. W. Kirkpatrick, Mr. W. W. K. Page, Mr. G. H. Tipper, Mr. E. Vredenburg, Mr. H. P. Watts.

Visitors:—Mrs. C. T. Ambler, Mr. A. C. Atkinson, Mr. H. S. Bion, Mr. G. E. Cooke, Mr. H. K. De, Mr. R. G. Farmer, Mr. J. H. Ferguson, Mr. and Mrs. N. Haas, Mrs. Insch, Miss N. O. Lindsay, Mr. Isaac Shrager.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Seventy-two presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Babu Badri Das Goenka, Mr. W. McIntosh, Mr. A. N. Moberly and Dr. T. F. Pearse had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The General Secretary also reported the death of Rev. L. O. Skrefsrud, an Ordinary Member of the Society.

The General Secretary read the names of the following gentlemen who had been appointed to serve on the various Committees during 1911:—

Finance Committee.

Dr. N. Annandale, Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, Mr. I. H. Burkill, Mr. W K. Dods, Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, Dr. E. Denison Ross.

Library Committee.

Dr. N. Annandale, Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, Mr. I. H. Burkill, Mr. J. N. Das-Gupta, Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, Mr. Harinath De, Dr. E. P. Harrison, Mr. H. H. Hayden, Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S., Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Dr. E. Denison Ross, Dr. G. Thibaut.

Philological Committee.

Hon'ble Mr. Abdullah al-Mamun Suhrawardy, Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, Mr. E. A. Gait, Dr. Girindra Nath Mukhopadhyaya, Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, Mr. Harinath De, Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, Babu Muralidhar Banerjee, Babu Nogendra Nath Vasu, Lieut-Colonel D. C. Phillott, Babu Rakhal Das Banerjee, Dr. E. Denison Ross, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, Acharya Satyavrata Samasrami, Dr. G. Thibaut, Mr. E. Venis.

The General Secretary laid on the table a circular regarding the Nobel Prize for Literature awarded annually by the Swedish Academy, Stockholm.

The General Secretary also laid on the table, for the information of the Monthly General Meeting, under Rule 48 (a), the minutes of the members of Council on an amendment to Regulation 6 (i.e., for the words two-thirds in Rule 6 substitute a Majority) governing the nomination and election of Fellows among the Ordinary Members.

The President announced that the Council had appointed Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., as Medical Secretary in the place of Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., resigned.

The following five gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

The Hon'ble Sir Bijay Chand Mahtap, K.C.I.E., Maharajadhiraj Bahadur of Burdwan, 6, Alipore Road, proposed by Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, seconded by Mr. D. Hooper; Mr. G. F. Thorpe, Bengal Pilot Service, proposed by Lieut-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S., seconded by Mr. D. Hooper; Major O. A. Smith, 27th Punjabis, proposed by Lieut.-Col. F. P. Maynard, I.M.S., seconded by Lieut.-Col. F. J. Drury, I.M.S.; Babu Charu C. Chaudhuri, Zemindar and Honorary Magistrate, Sherpur Town P.O. (Mymensingh District), proposed by Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, seconded by Mr. K. N. Tagore; Mr. F. W. Thomas, Librarian, India Office, London, proposed by Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, seconded by Mr. D. Hooper.

Mr. E. Vredenburg showed some lantern slides:—

(1) Photographs of the hill fort of Raisen in Central India, with an illustration of an incised rock-drawing.

The fort of Raisen in Eastern Malwa contains numerous buildings, many of which date back to the fifteenth century and earlier part of the sixteenth century, while others belong to the Moghal period. Along one of the sloping paths leading up to the fortress, there is a curious incised rock-drawing repre-

senting a lion chase in which the hunters are clad in armour of the style of the fifteenth century. The picture is worth mentioning because drawings with a similar technique discovered some time ago near Bijeygarh in Baghelkhand have been ascribed to the prehistoric period. In view of the late period of the Raisen drawing it is most probable that those near Bijeygarh are also late-medieval, an opinion already advanced in the Journal of this Society by Mr. J. Cockburn in 1883.

(2) Photographs of some fifteenth century tombs at Gwádar on the Makran Coast, constructed in the Indian style of Gujrat.

Theer are at Gwadar on the Makran coast some ancient Mahommedan tombs, one of which bears an inscription with the date 873 Hijri (1468 A.D.). The tombs have been noticed by previous travellers, but none of the published descriptions give any account of the peculiarities of their architecture. Their style is identical with the very remarkable adaptation of Hindu architecture to Mahommedan buildings that prevailed in Gujrat during the rule of the independent Mahommedan Kings in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. It seems to indicate that the influence of the powerful kingdom of Gujrat must have extended to a considerable distance westward during the latter part of the fifteenth century.

Dr. N. Annandale exhibited specimens of sponges associated with the shells of gregarious molluses of the family Vermetidae in the Bay of Bengal.

In exhibiting the specimens, he explained that the contorted, worm-like shells of the molluses combined with the sponges, which were of almost stony hardness, formed irregular masses often of considerable size. The sponges exhibited were of two species, Racodiscula sceptrellifera, Carter, and Spongosorites topsenti, Dendy. Neither of these sponges was invariably associated with molluscan shells, but in the specimens before the meeting S. topsenti was intimately combined with shells of Siliquaria muricata (Born), and R. sceptrellifera with those of Siliquaria cochlearis and Spiroglyphus cummingi, Mörch. Each of the two latter species of mollusc appeared to have associated with it a special variety of the sponge.

- Mr. I. H. Burkill exhibited a collection of drugs-" a Lepcha's Medicine bag''—and remarked:—
- "In the bazaar of Naxalbari, Darjeeling terai, I found recently a wandering Lepcha selling scraps for the cure of a variety of complaints. The sale of his medicines, he confessed, neither occupies his whole time nor satisfies his needs, for he acts as a coolie when it suits him. He had for sale many scraps of fur intended to be worn to cure sleeplessness:

there were bits of the skin of all the following animals—tiger, leopard, donkey, black bear (Ursus torquatus), rhinoceros, musk deer, the wild cat (Felis chaus), the himalayan catbear (Aelurus fulgens) which he called Optunga, and the hybrid of the Yak with a cow. Most of the skins he obtains from hunters. There were dried skulls or parts of skulls of musk deer, the red dog (Cyon dukhunensis) and of a musk rat, a Manis, and of what he called Karang-karung, a rodent perhaps Lagomys; teeth of tiger, Felis chaus, pig, bear (probably Ursus torquatus), sloth-bear and young rhinoceros; dried paws of a leopard, bear, and sloth-bear; claws of a tiger; bristles of a wild pig; half of an elephant's rib, flesh of Cyon dukhunensis; and the dried tongue of a tiger.

He also had a large lump of lard made from bear's fat of a dark colour throughout, and some hard Yaks' cheese. The Yaks' cheese was for use in preventing difficult breathing, such as is experienced on the high passes that the Yak frequents.

There was in his collection the dried leg of some bird of

prey.

He had a tortoise rib, a tortoise foot, bits of the dried body of the lizard *Varanus bengalensis* and the gill-cover of a mahsir fish (*Barbus tor*).

He had the shells of *Cypraea tigris* to be worn on a necklace to cure goitre. It is evident that the shape of the shell had suggested its use in this disease.

He had a largish bundle of pieces of the bark of Betula Bhojpattra, for use as paper in writing charms, and the following roots:—

Pakanbet, a rhizome not yet identified.

Radha, a stem, apparently of a Menisperm.

Nim, bark of Melia Azadirachta

Shudakpha, a rhizome, not yet identified.

Bhutkes, root of Selinum Candollii.

Punga rai, a fern stem.

Pokli rai, a fern stem.

Padam chal, root of a Rheum.

Sungwara, the shell of a fruit looking not unlike that of Carapa moluccensis.

He also had pieces of copper pyrites, of a soft serpentine (called Mirbishi patal) used for cataract in cows, and of calcium sulphate (Hum patal), a drug for fever.

Drs. Annandale and Fermor and Messrs. Tipper and Hooper have kindly helped in the determination of the above

scraps."

Mr. S. W. Kemp exhibited new and interesting species of Stomatopod Crustacea from the collection in the Indian Museum. Mr. F. H. Grevely exhibited Myrmeleonid and Ascalaphid larvæ found living free upon tree-trunks, and remarked:—

"The larvæ of the Myrmeleonidæ (Ant-Lions) and the closely allied Ascalaphidæ feed upon other insects. They lie concealed and suddenly seize their unsuspecting prey as it approaches. Most Ascalaphid larvæ cover themselves with a cloak of debris, or hide among rubbish or under stones; but the Indian species here exhibited (Pseudoptynx sp.) sits exposed on tree-trunks, where it is rendered sufficiently inconspicuous by its form and colour. The larvæ of some genera of Myrmeleonidæ resemble those of the Ascalaphidæ in habit; but those of the genus Myrmeleon construct pits into which their prey falls and at the bottom of which they live. The Indian species exhibited here (Myrmeleon contractus, Wilk.) is the only known exception to this; it lives upon tree-trunks with its head and thorax covered by an attached layer of fine dust."

The following papers were read:-

- 1. Farman of the Emperor Aurangzeb.—By Rajanibanjan Sen. Communicated by the Philological Secretary.
- 2. Pandits of the 18th Century.—By MAHAMAHOPADHYAYA HARAPRASAD SHASTRI.
- 3. A Note on the Dark Monday (Somavati).—By B. A. Gupte.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

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The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's Rooms on Wednesday, the 8th March, 1911, at 9-30 p.m.

Col. G. F. A. Harris, M.D., I.M.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Lt.-Col. J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. C. H. Elmes, Capt. H. B. Foster, I.M.S., Lt.-Col. A. H. Nott, I.M.S., Captain J. D. Sandes, I.M.S., and Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors:—Lt.-Col. W. B. Thomson, R.A.M.C., Dr. Sarasilal Sarkar.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The President announced the appointment of Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, as Medical Secretary of the Society, in the place of Major L. Rogers, resigned.

The following cases were shown:-

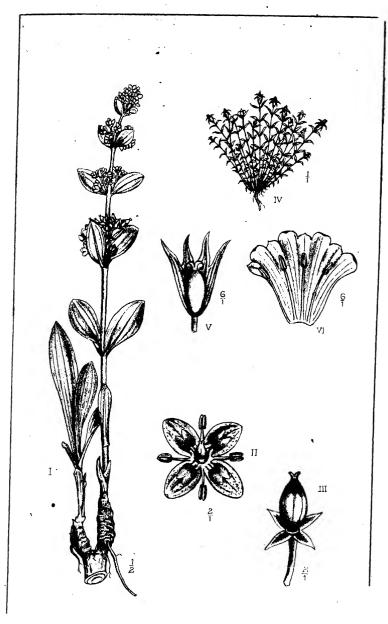
- 1. By Lt.-Col. Calvert, I.M.S.
 - (a) A case showing multiple subcutaceous tumours, for diagnosis. A microscopical section of one of the tumours was also shown from which it appeared that the growth was a calcifying fibroma.

(b) A case of Osteo Arthristis in a young European with X-ray photographs. This condition is said by Sir Jonathan Hutchinson to be very rare if not altogether unknown in India.

(c) A case of early Leprosy in a European boy.

- 2. By Lt.-Col. Nott, I.M.S.—A case in which Rhinoplasty had been performed with a very satisfactory result.
- 3. The Secretary showed three photographs illustrating a remarkable case of Myositis Ossificans. The photographs had been recently presented to the Medical College by Surgeon-General Lukis.

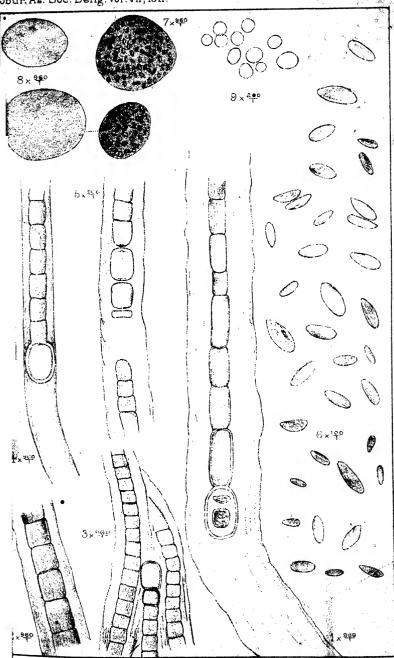
The cases were discussed by the President, Col. Nott, Col. Thomson, Dr. Elmes and Capt. Foster.



Drawn by A N. Banerjee. Swertia Burkilliana W.W. Smith, Fig. Gentiana pluviarum W.W. Smith, Figs

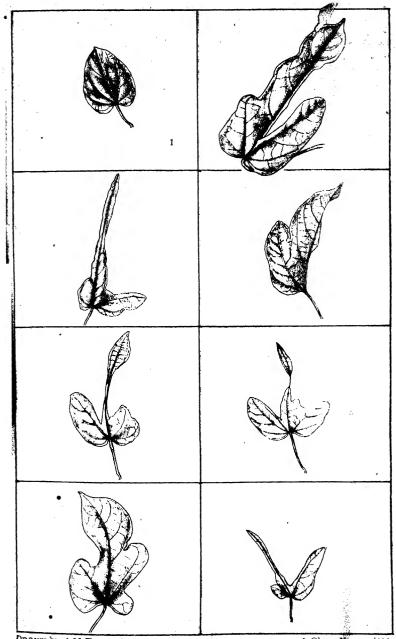


A.Chowdhary, lith



West, del.

A Chiwdhary lith.



A.Chowding Sterculia alata Roxb var irregularis.

All reduced to i Nalis leaf of normal tree.

15. A Visit to Kapála-Muchan.

By ANAND KOUL.

During my last inspection tour towards Supayan, I paid a visit to Kapála-Muchan or Digom on 20th June, 1909. This is a place of Hindu pilgrimage situated in the south-western corner of the Valley about 24 miles from Srinagar. There are three springs here close to one another. At the main spring is an old lingam, rough and unhewn, and also some old sculptured stone images said to have been unearthed from the adjacent fields.

2. Recently the priests of this place, named Laksman Bayu and Visna Bayu, while digging near the point where the waters of the three springs meet, discovered a stone with a Sanskrit inscription in Sarada character. As this is only a fragment, the exact meaning of the inscription cannot be made out.

प्रथम पंकिः

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It would seem that there was an ancient monument here into which this stone, giving an account of the builder, had been set up. There is at present no visible sign of any monument at this place, but if excavations are conducted some of its relics might be unearthed.

The priests have since succeeded in unearthing another fragment of the inscribed stone, and it is far more important than the one previously found, inasmuch as it gives the date of the monument in which the engraved stone had been erected.

This inscription, like that of the stone previously discovered, is in Sanskrit in the Săradā character and of the same

style and purport. I give below a hand copy of it:-

यथा प्रमुंचे स[ता]पंदा वंत्रक^[*] स[ध]री रतः तथा प्रमुंचेत् सातदा पा पं वं सुकानवद्य [कि] ११ विकास सं—===== पंडित कोसवाति......सनकस्यसमैसदनं ददानि इत्येवं श्रिवम्

It says by way of the sanctity of the shrine that one is able to get rid of sins here as a snake is of its old skin, and concludes by stating that the monument, into which this inscribed stone had been built, had been given in charity to a Pandit of the Soma caste. The year visible in the inscription is the Vikramāditya era 846, but presumably it is 1846, as there seems to be a battered figure before 846. At present the Vikramāditya era being 1966, it is evident that the monument referred to in the inscription was built 120 years ago.

3. It may not be out of place to make here a brief mention of the legend relating to the place. The Māhātmya of this pilgrimage says that once Viṣṇu and Brahmā had a dispute as to which of them was superior to the other. At last it was agreed that they should go to Sīva and ask him to decide the point and that they would abide by his verdict. When they approached Sīva and told him what dispute they had, he created a lingam of bright light and said to them—"Viṣṇu, you go beneath, and Brahmā, you go above, this lingam and see where it terminates. Either of you who returns first after finding out the end of the lingam is greater than the other." They then set out, Viṣṇu downwards and Brahmā upwards, but though the one went deeper and deeper and other higher and higher they could not reach the end. They then returned to Sīva. Viṣṇu acknowledged his failure,

but Brahma, who then had five heads, told Siva falsely from his fifth mouth that he had seen the end of the lingam. Siva knew that what he had said was untrue; so he getting enraged, cut off Brahma's fifth head for having told a lie, and then dismissed them both saying that neither of them was greater than the other. But the sin of cutting off the head remained attached to Siva. In order to get rid of it, he performed different pilgrimages, yet it did not leave him. Afterwards he went to Kapala-Muchan, and lo! here the sin left him. Since then this pilgrimage is called Degrāmi (now shortened into Digom) or Kapála-Muchan, the former implying "the village where afterwards Siva had to go " and the latter " the place where the sin of cutting off the head went away." When Siva was freed of the sin he was pleased, and he sanctified the place by saying that deceased children might attain salvation by their Sraddha being performed here.

4. A fair is annually held here in August on the 12th of the bright fortnight of Sāwan. Thousands of people collect here that day, and those who have lost their children during the past twelve months perform their Srāddha and give their clothes, ornaments, etc., in charity. The priests keep a number of young boys and girls here on the occasion, and people make them wear the clothes, ornaments, etc. A boy is made to wear a deceased boy's things, and a girl a deceased girl's, and then the articles are given away as offerings in the name of the deceased. It is also believed by the Hindus that if a living creature is accidentally killed by any one and he gives an image of it, made of gold or silver, in charity here, he gets rid of that sin as Siva got of his, so at the annual fair several people may be seen giving golden and silver images of different creatures in charity.

16. Methylamine Nitrite (Methylammonium Nitrite).

By PRAFULLA CHANDRA RAY and JITENDRA NATH RAKSHIT.

(Preliminary note.)

When mercuric nitritie solution is treated with dilute ammonia, a precipitate of dimercurammonium nitrite is formed and ammonium nitrite remains in solution (Trans., Chem. Soc. 1902, Vol. 81, 644). Recently, a solution of mercuric nitrite was similarly treated with dilute methylamine. The precipitate which was thus obtained proved on analysis to be dimercurammonium nitrite, pure and simple. The filtrate, amounting to about 25 c.c., was distilled in a vacuum at temperatures gradually raised from 45°—50°. (Cf. decomposition and sublimation of ammonium nitrite, Trans., Chem. Soc. 1909, Vol. 95, 345).

In the earlier stages of the operation water distilled off with minute bubbles of nitrogen; but later on the "click" remained persistent and water alone was given off. When the solution had attained the consistency of a thick syrup the temperature was raised to 60°; minute bubbles once more began to be evolved. This stage was maintained from 3 to 4 hours, after which on removal of the distilling tube from the water-bath, the liquid crystallised en masse. On heating the crystals to 75° rapid decomposition took place, the products being methyl alcohol, water and nitrogen—the characteristic reaction between a primary amine and nitrous acid. The crystals which were of a pale yellow colour also copiously liberated iodine from an acidified potassium iodide solution.

We are at present engaged in preparing the homologues of the series by the above method and also by the double decomposition between the corresponding methylamine halides and silver nitrite. We hope to communicate the details of the experiments at an early date. It may be added for the present that by this latter method we have obtained a much larger and purer yield of methylamine nitrite.

 $^{^{\}rm l}$ The following two equations evidently represent the two reactions:

⁽¹⁾ $2Hg (NO_2)_8 + 4 NH_4 OH = NHg_2 NO_2 + 3 NH_4 NO_2 + 4 H_2O$. (2) $2Hg (NO_2)_2 + 4NH_8 CH_8OH = NHg_2 NO_2 + 3 NH_8 CH_8 NO_2 + CH_8OH + 3H_2O$.

17. Folklore of the origin of the constellation Mrigashirshs.

By B. A. GUPTE.

In the Shiva-rātri-vrat-katha of the Linga-Purān, there is a story about Shivarātra, the 14th or dark night of the month

of Magh. It runs :--

In the mountainous border-land of Pratyanta there lived a hunter named Lubdhaka. He earned his livelihood by chikar. On the day just named, he was arrested by his creditors and confined in a Shiva's temple. There he saw the emblem of Shive and heard his name repeated by the devotees. 'Shive,' "Shiva," he began repeating out of jest; the result was that his sins began disappearing in proportion. In the afternoon of the day, some of the worshippers subscribed a sum sufficient to meet the demand of the creditor and released him. He then went to the south to hunt Night overtook him, he had no food; that worked as a fast. He went to a tank and sat on the branch of a tree of Bael (Agle marmelos) sacred to Shiva. In order to clear the vision, he plucked the leaves of the tree and threw them down. They fell on Shiva that lay hidden below. All these unconscious acts added to his credit. At the end of the first quarter of the night, there came to the tank a doe big with youngs. He aimed an arrow, she spoke to him in human voice, promised to return after laying down her fœtus, and went away. Then came another doe in heat. It was her breeding season. She spoke, she swore, she was allowed to go. She was followed by a black buck in search of her. The same thing happened. Lastly came a doe with young ones: she also was allowed to go. They all returned to the hunter as promised. He was a changed man. He refused to kill them. He and the antelope family were all taken to the Nakshatra-lök or heaven.

The story has been published in the Shivalila-mrita, but there is no mention of the constellation. The following extracts from the text give the origin of the *Mriga-nakshatra* or the lifth mansion of the Moon. (Fig. 4.) The meaning is:—

the fifth mansion of the Moon. (Fig. 4.) The meaning is:—
"Oh Mriga, go to the position of a Nakshatra, with your family, that constellation shall be named after you. The way the two does went to heaven is still visible. There are two bright stars near the constellation. They represent Lubdhak, the hunter. Below these, there are three more bright stars. They are called Mrig-shirsha, literally the head of an antelone. In front of the constellation are two stars representing the young ones, and a third one to mark the position of the dos.

This bright King of Antelopes still gloriously shines in the

akw "

Colebrook and Burgess say that Lubdhak or Sirius is a star in the belt of Orionis, but Bentley says that it is Tauri.\footnote A. A. Macdonell\footnote says that Sirius is Lubdhak. Sir Monier Williams\footnote also calls it Sirius, but adds another story. He says that while Brahma was pursuing his own daughter as an antelope, Shiva threw an arrow at him. It is seen in its head. In the Pur\overline{a}n under consideration, it is said that the first doe was an apsara or celestial maiden. She loved a demon and was cursed by Shiva that she would become a doe, and that her lover would be turned into a black buck. In the Hindu Siddh\vec{a}nta, Lubdhak is the Yog-t\vec{a}ra of the constellation. In the Ratna-m\vec{a}la this constellation is shaped like the head of an antelope as its name indicates. (See fig. 4.)

In the Zodiac, the 9th mansion is Sagittarius shaped like a hunting centaur. (Fig. 1.) It is god Negal of the Assyrians. Egyptian and Hindu astronomers give merely the bow as its symbol, and so do the Greeks. (Figure 3 is however taken from

Brennand's Hindu Astronomy.)

Lubdhak stands at 63° of longitude and 10° south latitude.⁶ This is why the story mentions that the hunter went to the

south after his release from the temple.

If Sagittarius is the hunter of the Zodiac, Capricornus or Goat's-horn was perhaps the antelope of the western ancients. Sir Monier William identifies Capricornus with Mrigāsya (anteloped-faced). (Fig. 2.)

The scenes may vary, the constellations may vary, according to the solar or lunar mansions, but the fact remains that a hunter and an antelope of the celestial orb are the basis of this

folklore.

The perusal of the Sanskrit passage quoted below and the clear vision there was of the Mriga-shirsha on the dark day of the last Shivarātra of February led me to the discovery that Gemini, the third sign of the Zodiac, was just below, or in the same longitude with Sagittarius. This is perhaps the reason why the Bael leaves dropped by the hunter fell on Shiva's Yugma or Mithun. The conjecture that Mithun was the gupta or invisible Shiva, invisible on that day, led me to examine the signs of the Zodiac more carefully, and I found that Shiva's bull, Taurus, was on its one side and Parvati's lion, Leo, on the other. The interposition of the Cancer remained to be accounted for, and a Marāthi verse suggested that they were the

¹ Hindu Astronomy, by W. Brennand, p. 42.

Sanskrit-English Dictionary.
 Sanskrit-English Dictionary.
 Encyclopædia Britannica.

⁵ Brennand's Hindu Astronomy, p. 42.

ganās or attendant spirits of Shiva. Thus (1) Shiva, and (2) Pārvati as Gemini, (3) Taurus as his sacred bull Nandi, (4) Leo as Pārvati's charger Lion, and (5) the group of stars called Cancer as the ganas of Shiva with their ish or chief Ganesh complete what is known as Shiva-Panchāyatana—five in one (Fig. 5). This, I believe, is a new idea not recorded before. I therefore submit it to the Society for further investigation. If Sagittarius is god Negal of the Assyrians, if Virgo is the Venus of the Græcians, if Lubdhak is a manifestation of Shiva of the Hindus, there is reason to believe that Gemini or Mithun is the eternal Yugma of Shiva, and that Taurus, Leo, and Cancer are its concomitants. I reproduce the figures for ready reference and for contemplation of the celestial origin of god Shiva. (Fig. 6).

The southern border-land *Pratyanta* points to the equator. The confinement of the hunter means his disappearance below the horizon, the intervening stars in the celestial orb between Sirius and Gemini are possibly the *bael* leaves, and the way the

antelopes took is possibly the well-known milky way.

This is not a new way of thinking. E. W. Maunder in his "Astronomy without a Telescope" tells us at page 11, that "In several cases there are groups of figures which form something like a connected story; Hercules and the Dragon, Perseus and Andromeda are examples."

The story of the hunter and the antelope with the connected group of the Shiva's Panchāyatana are but examples of the same process when examined through Hindu spectacles.

EXTRACTS FROM THE TEXT.

| स्याराज महासत्व निजयुत्रसमन्वतः |
| भार्या जितय संयुक्तो नाच्यं पदमाप्तृ हि |
| तव नाझात दचांतृ कोके व्याति गमिष्यति || २६०
| हरिबोदय मार्गस्त वृद्धतेऽद्यापि पार्वति ||
| तत्पृष्ठ कमं ताराणां दितियं मिप संनिभं || २६२ ||
| कच्चांतु लुव्धकं नाम वृद्धते द्योत नं स्रभं |
तारा चितिय संयुक्तं स्वामीवें तदुष्यते		२६३	
वालक दितयं चार्ये द्वतीया एकतो स्वगी			
एएक्तव संमाना स्वामीवें स्व संनिधी			
स्वाराष्ट् वृद्धतेद्यापि ऋचां योमगमुक्तमं		२६८	

The Vedes do not seem to inculcate th the Magam is undoubtedly one of th objects of hismage adopted in India, sub of the Vedas.

The worship of Shive seems to have come about the b ning of the Christian era, from the basin of the Lower La through Rejputena, and to have displaced the nature worship

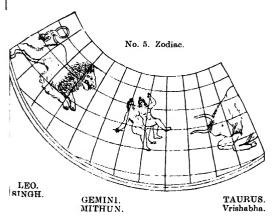
" of the Vedas." -The Cyclopaedia o India, page 482 in



No. 1. Saggitarius.



No. 2. Capricornus.





No. 4. Mriga-Sirsha



No. 3. Dhanu.



No. 6. Shive and Parvati.

18. Father A. Monserrate's Description of Deihi (1581), Firoz Shāh's Tunnels.

By REV. H. HOSTEN, S.J.

Now that the coming Darbar turns all eyes wistfully towards the old capital, special interest attaches to Father Anthony Monserrate's (S.J.) description of the place, the earliest on record by a European. Though the work from which I am about to quote (Mongolicae Legationis Commentarius, MS.) was completed only in January 1591, and that under pathetic circumstances, the writer being then in prison at Sena in Arabia, his description of Delhi is in reality ten years older. There can be no doubt that Monserrate recorded his impressions of Delhi in 1581, when he passed through it in the suite of Akbar, then on his way to Kābul. In May 1582, Monserrate left Fathpur Sikri for Goa never to return to Akbar's Court.

[55a. 3] "From Matura we arrived in six days at Deli, a most opulent and large city situated on the Jomanes. Here had stood, from the time of the Christian Kings, the throne of the Indian [Hindu] Kings; here sat, after them, the Patan Kings. Here, too, it was that Emaum [Humāyūn], Zelaldin's [Jalaluddin Akbar's father, who delighted to reside here, so long as he lived, closed his days through an accident.2 He lies buried in a tomb of great size which his son Zelaldin constructed [556] amidst most beautiful gardens. Such was the love and fidelity felt for him by one of his wives, the mother of Mirsachim, the King of Chabul, against whom Zelaldin was marching, that she built a house near the tomb and watched over it during the remainder of her life.8 Up to her death she spent there her widowhood in prayers to God and alms-deeds

Akbar left Fathpur Sikri on a warlike expedition against his brother Mirzs Muhammad Hakim, King of Kabul, 'on the 6th before the ides of February 1581,' i.e. February 8.

1 "As his [Akbar's] father, whose name was Emaum, was walking on the terrace of the palace, he bent, as people do, over the parapet, leaning on a reed (arundini); his staff fell, and he was precipitated headlong into the garden. To this awful and sudden fall he succumbed."—(Monserr. MS., fol. 22b.)

⁸ Cf. Salvad Ahmad Khan, Description des Monuments de Delhi en 1852, d'après le texte Hindoustani, transl. by Garcin de Tassy, Reprint, Imprimerie Impériale, 1861, Pt. II, Ch. 67, p 136, or Journ. Asist, de Série, Vol. XVI, 1860, p. 445. "La Bégam Nabab Hâji, veuve de Humayan, fit entreprendre, en 973 de l'héjire (1565 de J. C.), la construction de ce tombeau, qui fut terminé dans l'espace de seine ans.

to the poor, five hundred of whom she used to feed. Example worthy of a heroine, no doubt, had she been a Christian.

"The Agarenes [Muhammadans], as some one has aptly written, are the apes of the Christians; indeed, in many things they imitate Christian piety, without deserving the reward of piety, for they stray from the true faith, [the true]

religion and [true] charity.

"The ornaments of Deli are its public edifices, the citadel in particular, which was built by Eamaum, the wall surrounding the city, and several temples [mosques?], especially that which King Peruz [Firoz Shah, 1351-1388] is said to have made. It is a magnificent structure, built of white marble, excellently polished. The mortar, which is dazzling white,a mixture of lime and milk, instead of water, -makes it shine like a mirror. This mixture of milk and lime binds the parts so firmly together as to prevent cracks, and, when polished, it gives a most beautiful gloss. Peruz, a Patan by birth, was a man much given to piety. All over his kingdom, at every second mile, inns were built by his order; [near by] large spreading trees (patulam arborem) were planted for shade and beauty; [56a] a well was dug where men and beasts could slake their thirst, and a temple [mosque?] erected where travellers might pray to God. On both sides of the roads, wherever the land allowed it, were planted long avenues of trees affording shade to the weary wayfarer. He bridged torrents, rivers and ravines; levelled roads, and built causeways of stone (lapides stravit) over marshy and boggy places; in a word he left nothing undone that tended to magnificence and public comfort

"On a ridge (in saltu), about three miles from Deli, he constructed a palace of wonderful size and beauty, and erected on the terrace a massive marble pillar, all of one piece, thirty feet high and about five feet thick. Again, he tunnelled out a subterranean passage about forty stadia in length, as far as

et qui lui coûta quinze lakhs de roupies. Depuis lors il a servi de sépulture aux membres de la maison royale de Timur." For a description of the mouveleum and corden see this

tion of the mausoleum and garden, see ibid.

1 Cf. SAIYAD AḤMAD KḤĀN, cp. cit., Pt. II, Ch. 64, or Jour. Asiat., 5e Serie, Vol. XVI, 1860, p. 431: "Ce fut la Bégam Nabab Hâjî, veuve de Humâyûn Padschâh, qui fit bâtir ce caravansérail ['Arab Sara] au près du tombeau du Sultan Humâyûn, en l' an 6 du règne d' Akbar, 968 de l'hégire (1560 de J. C.). Cet édifice servit à loger trois cents Arabes, et ce fut ainsi qu'on le nomma le caravansérail des Arabes ('Arab Sara).''

The expression is strong, but the meaning is clear: there is a great

deal of natural piety outside the pale of revealed Religion.

3 "The golden pillar is a single shaft of pale pinkish sand-stone. 42 feet 7 inches in length, of which the upper portion, 35 feet in length, has received a very high polish, while the remainder is left quite rough. Its upper diameter is 25.3 inches, and its lower diameter 38.8 inches." Cf. Gen. Cunningham, Arch. Report, 1862, p. 17.

old Deli (where Christian Kings are believed to have lived). This he did that he might, whenever he pleased, withdraw from the affairs and cares of state, and repair alone and without attendants to that pleasure-seat for the sake of distraction. Many things are related of him, which—if they were true and had been coupled with faith in Christ-would have merited him for these benefits a place in heaven. With the exception of the Mongol garrison, the town is inhabited by rich and wealthy Brachmanas. Hence, the private buildings add not a little to the splendour of the town. The country abounds in stone and lime, [56b] and the well-to-do build, not low and tumble-down houses, but substantial, lofty, welladorned residences. Thanks to Emaum, who delighted in building and was fond of magnificent cities and broad roads, the streets are large, contrary to the custom of the Agarenes, and picturesque. The splendid avenues of trees in the middle of the streets are an ornament in themselves, while their leafy green sheds a pleasant shade around. It would be too long to descant on the suburbs, which are many, or to enlarge on the beauty of the gardens on both sides of the Jomanes. which nearly fringes the town on the east. Suffice it to say that under a benign sky they produce in abundance every variety of crops and fruits. Indeed, the country round about Deli is extremely rich and fertile. The ruins, towers, and half-crumbling walls of old Deli still attest that it was once a famous town; it lies about thirty-two stadia from and somewhat to the west of the new city."

I need add little in comment. To residents in Delhi or to those who have visited the place, the allusions are clear enough. All will recognize in the marble pillar erected by Firoz Shah the famous Asoka lat. We can only wonder why Father Monserrate, generally so detailed in his descriptions. should have made no allusion to the inscriptions. Not so

W. Finch, or rather Purchas, his editor.

It matters little if Monserrate's pet theory about Christian Kings having once ruled at Delhi cannot be defended. The general accuracy of his description of Firoz Shah's reign is amply borne out by the Muhammadan historians, notably by the Tabakát-i-Akbarí and Firishta. They mention among his works of public utility:—"Five canals (band-i-jiú), [Firishta says "[0"]; 4 Mosques [Firishta says "40"]; 30 Colleges; 20 Monasteries (khánkáh); 100 Palaces (kúshk); 200 Caravanserais (rabát); 300 Towns; 5 Tanks (hauz); 5 Hospitals; 100 Mausolea; 10 Baths; 10 Monumental Pillars (minara); 150 Wells; 100 Bridges; and gardens beyond number." Cf. Elliot. Hist. of India. IV. 18 n. 1.

E. Thomas writes:

[&]quot;One of the many deficiencies a modern mind detects

in the long list of buildings, canals, dams, bridges, and other works enumerated by him, is the total omission of even the name of a road. India's greatest want, and the deficiency of which the Sollin had so signally experienced while personally in command of retiring armies.' (Cf. The Chron. of the Pathán

Kings of Delhi, London, 1871, p. 274.)

It should not surprise us, if some of the works executed under Firōz Shāh had been attributed by fulsome flatterers to later rulers, in particular to Akbar and Jahāngir. It has been the case in so many other instances. At any rate, let it be noted that Monserrate, who was Prince Murad's tutor, derived from Akbar himself, and from Abú-l Fazl, his Persian tutor, much of his information about the earlier Muhammadan Kings, and that he states in 1531, as a matter of certainty, that Firōz had supplied the country with roads and avenues. Among the latter we must probably rain that splendid avenue from Delhi to Lahore, which excited so much admiration in the early European travellers.

The chief point of interest in Monserrate's account is, evidently, his allusion to the tunnel constructed by Firōz. He betrays no hesitation in the matter, but took the trouble of working out in stadia the length of the tunnel. It was about $4\frac{2}{4}$ miles long, the stadium being 606 feet 9 inches English. As for the direction of the tunnel, Monserrate's text and the maps of the neighbourhood of Delhi clearly point to its having

run from Firoz Shāh's Kotila to Rái Pithora.

Our next European reference to the tunnel is dated 30 years later. W. Finch, who was in Delhi in 1611, after describing the Kotila and its stone Pillar, "which passing through three stories, is higher than all twenty-four feet, having at the top a Globe, and a half Moone over it" proceeds thus: "From the monument is said to be a way underground to Dely Castle." By 'Dely Castle' he means certainly Old Delhi.

At this stage of my researches, Mr. E. D. Maclagan referred me to a passage in Carr Stephen's The Archwology and Monumental Remains of Delhi, Simla [1876], pp. 125-126: "There were three tunnels in this citadel wide enough to allow the ladies of the Sultan's family to travel through in conveyances. One communicated with the river, and was five zarib long, another with the Kushak-i Shikar, and was two kos long, and the third in the direction of Qilah Rái Pithora, about five kos long."

As the quotation in the above passage comes immediately after another from Cunningham (Arch. Survey of India Reports, 1862—65, Vol. I, Simla, 1871, p. 219), it was hoped that the next, too, would be found in General Cunningham's Archæolo-

¹ Purchas his Pilgrimes, Glasgow, J. Maclehose, 1905, Vol. IV.

gical Reports; but, though both Mr. Maclagan and myself examined independently every reference to Delhi in Mr. V. A. Smith's General Index to Vols. I-XXIII, we failed to discover it.

We were more successful in another direction. In Description des Monuments de Delhi en 1852, d'après le texte Hindoustani de Saivid Ahmad Khan, par M. Garcin de Tassy, Paris, Imprimerie Impériale, 1861, pt. I, p. 26,1 we have a much clearer reference to the tunnels with sufficient proof that even as late as 1852 the tradition concerning them was not yet extinct.

"[Ch.] XIII. Kuschak of Firoz Schâh, or Kotila of Firoz Schâh.

In the year 755 of the hegira (1354 A.D.), when it was Firoz Schâh's turn to reign, he had this castle (kuschak) erected on the border of the river,2 on the confines of the place called Kâdîn,8 and near to (attenant à) this kuschak, he built a town. In this palace, they had made three subterranean passages (conduits), so as to be able to ride out that way with the women of the palace (afin de pouvoir sortir par là sur des montures avec les femmes du palais). There was a passage of three jarib, on the side of the river, another near the belvedere.6 two cosses long, and a third on the side of Old Dehli, five cosses in length. Now, it is evident that by Old Dehli we must understand the castle and town of Raja Pithaura, for the third passage is in that place, and very old people say that he went as far as a marvellous place and a special basin [tank.]"7

¹ Reprinted from Journal Asiatique, 50 Série, Vol. XV (1860), pp. 508—536; Vol. XVI (1860), pp. 190—254; 392—451; 521—543; Vol. XVII (1861), pp. 77—97. Mr. J. P. Thompson, Divisional Judge, Delhi, does not know of any edition of 1852. He writes to Mr. E. D. Maclagan: "There are four editions of Sayyid Ahmad Khān's Āṣāru-ṣ-ṣanādīd; the 1st ed., which came out in 1847; a Newal Kishor ed., of which I do not know the date; the very rare 1854 ed.; and the Cawnpore ed. of 1904 (Nami Press). Most of the copies of the ed. of 1854 were destroyed in the Mutiny. That must have been the ed. used by Cassin destroyed in the Mutiny. That must have been the ed. used by Garcin de Tassy. The 1904 ed., as the preface states, was intended to combine the strong points of the eds, of 1847 and 1854. It came out six years after the author's death. We may assume, therefore, that, where the 1904 ed. differs from that of 1847, it reproduces with verbal alterations only the ed. of 1854."

² [The next four references belong to the original here quoted.]

Tarkh-i Firischta. [Cf. Elliot, Hist. of India, vi, 225.]

8 Tarkh-i Firoz Schdht and Shame-i Siráj 'Afif. [Cf. Elliot, Hist.

of India, III, IV, VIII.]

^{*} Ayin Akbery. [I note that there is nothing corresponding to this passage on Delhi in Gladwin's translation of the Ain Akbari, Vol. II, pp. 104-105.]

Land-measure varying according to localities. (Cf. Elliot, Glossary of Indian terms.)

The Kushk-i Shikar, as will be seen further. 7 The special basin of which there is question here must be the Haux 'Alai or Hauz-i Khdes (special basin) described by Ahmad Khan, Pt. II.

Clearest of all is the text in the \bar{Ain} , Colonel Jarrett's translation, ii, 279. It brings us back much nearer to the

passage in Carr Stephen.

"Sultán Firóz (1351—88) gave his own name to a large town which he founded, and by a cutting from the Jumna brought its waters to flow by. He likewise built another palace at a distance of 3 kos from Firózábád, named Jahánnumá (the world-view). Three subterranean passages were made wide enough to admit of his passing along in mounted procession with the ladies of his harem; that towards the river, 5 jaribs in length; the second towards the Jahánnumá, 2 kós, and the third to Old Delhi, 3 kós."

We may remark at once that, according to the \bar{Ain} , the third tunnel to Old Delhi was only 3 kos long, whereas the text of Aḥmad Khán and Carr Stephen speaks of 5 kos. This divergence may be due to a different reading in the work consulted by Aḥmad Khán. We note also that whereas, according to the \bar{Ain} , the tunnel to the Jahánnumá was 2 kos long, the distance between Firozābād and the Jahánnumá is said to have

been 3 kos in length.

The Jahánnumá is identical with the Kúshk-i Shikár. "The same king (Firoz Schâh) had had another palace constructed at a distance of three cosses from the town of Firozâbâd (cf. Târîkh-i Firischta), besides the edifices of which we have spoken, and had given it the name of Jâhan Numâ (belvedere, literally, the world-viewing edifice). Between the Kushak of Firoz Shâh, and this palace, a subterranean passage, two cosses in length, had been constructed. It is that way that the king would go out in palanquin with the women of the palace." Cf. Saiyad Ahmad Khān, op. cit., Pt. I, Ch.

Ch. 19, p. 98; in Journ. Asiat., 5° Série, XVI, 397. It is near Firoz Shāh's tomb. "In Firoz Shâh's time it had become filled with mud (Futühât Firoz Schâhi and Akhbâr Ulakhbar) and there was no water; but this Sultan had it completely cleaned about the year 755 of the hegira (1354 A.D.) and had all the parts repaired which had suffered (Futühât-i Firoz Schâh)." Mr. J. P. Thompson writes concerning the above passage in the text: "The 1854 ed. of the Asiarus-sanātāt seems to differ from that of 1847, Pt. II, p. 212—1906 ed., Pt. I, p. 85. In the description of the Badi' Manzil, which is, of course, the 'endroit merveilleux' of Garcin de Tassy, Sayyid Ahmad says: "It is said that Firōz Shāh made an underground passage (naph) by which he used to go moznted from the fortress of Firozābād [i.e. the Kotla] viā this building to the Hauz-i-Kháss. This is the only reference to tunnels in the 1847 ed. The Badi' Manzil is popularly and, I imagine, correctly known as the Bije Mandal. There are three of these Mandals about here: one in Tughlaqabad; the Bije Mandal, and the Sher Mandal, in the Purānā Qil'a, where Humāyūn met his death. In the 1904 ed. occurs the passage translated by Garcin de Tassy. Apparently, in 1847, Sayvid Ahmad Khān did not know of the account in the Ain-i-Akbari. The original: car le troisième conduit se trouvre en ce lieu' is simply: "kinnke tieri nagh isi jānib ko hat.=because the third tunnel is in this very direction," which is not so definite as de Tassy's translation."

XIV, p. 29, or Journ. Asiat., 5° Série, XV, 535. There was another Jahánnumá in Tughlagábád, but that is not the one meant here. Cf. ibid., Pt. I, Ch. X, p. 22, or Journ. Asiat., ibid., p. 529.

From this it is clear that, whoever be the author of the passage quoted by Carr Stephen, it is a correct interpretation

of either Saiyad Ahmad Khán or of the Ain.

It is, certainly, interesting to note that in Carr Stephen's time (1876) traces of the tunnel between Firozábád and the Kúshk-i Shikár were still visible. They are there still. "Within a few yards on the north of Hindu Ráo's house on the ridge. is a deep hollow, and on its northern side there are two low openings together forming one entrance, which seem to lead into a tunnel. The people in the neighbourhood also point out an air-shaft about 150 feet to the north of the entrance. attempts to explore the tunnel have hitherto failed." Cf. op. cit., p. 126. We may well ask whether any serious efforts had been made, and by whom?

Mr. E. D. Maclagan writes to me: "My brother, Col. R. S. Maolagan, R. E., Superintending Engineer, P.W.D., Amballa, says that a few years ago [in or about 1891] in a baoli (a well with galleries round it) near Pir Ghail, the P.W.D. found a passage about 6' x 2', which they cleared for a little distance in the hot weather, till they came to a hedgehog and a snake. They put off cleaning till the winter, and then went on for about 100', till they came out on the side of the hill (the Ridge). He knows of nothing else corresponding to Firoz' passages; but he says that a considerable tunnel has been found running from the Hammam in the Fort to the Shah Burj."

"One 'passage' pointed out to me on the far side of the ridge," says Mr. Thompson, "proved to be merely a water-course, so far as I could see. What we want is a

passage leading in the opposite direction."

Father Monserrate and W. Finch, as we have seen, are in perfect agreement with the \bar{Ain} . Throughout Monserrate's MS. there are many indications that Abú-l Fazl and Monserrate were writing their histories side by side. Abú-l Fazl

There are also underground passages in the Kâlî Masjid or Kalân

MasjM of Delhi. Cf. Saiyad Ahmad Khān, op. cit., Pt. II. Ch. XXXV, p. 44, or Journ. Asiat., 5e Série, Vol. XVI, 1860, p. 413.

The only difficulty I feel about Monserrate's description of Delhi is that he places Firozábád at a distance of 3 miles from the Delhi of his time. and that the tunnel to Rái Pithora was 40 stadia long, whereas the distance between Delhi and Old Delhi was, as he remarks, about 32 stadia. My doubts may be merely due to my ignorance of the topography of Delhi, old and new, and the extent of the town in 1581. Compared with the length (3 kos or 5 kos elsewhere?) ascribed to the tunnel by the Ain, Monserrate's measurements (40 st.) do not appear excessive, especially if we suppose that they cover the distance from Old Delhi to the Jahánnumá by way of Firozābād.

was frequently consulted. It was but natural. He was Monserrate's Persian master. Whether Abú-l Fazl has recorded in the Ain an engineering feat forgotten by former historians, or copied some earlier author, I cannot say. I have searched in vain the eight volumes of Elliot's History of India as told by its own Historians. It is possible, though not likely, that, as Elliot's translations are in many cases abstracts, the passages I was looking for have been omitted. I feel confident, however, that other texts must exist. The boring of tunnels on so large a scale and with such vast proportions must have created a stir even in Firoz Sháh's time. Was it not altogether unprecedented? It would be strange, therefore, if Firoz Shah's own historians had left the event unrecorded. We know how punctilious were the scribes of the Mogul Emperors. Monserrate notes that every action, every order or prohibition of Akbar's was instantly picked up by his secretaries, as if they had feared that his words should fall to the ground and be (Cf. fol. 111b, 4.) This "superstitious" practice, he suggests, they had inherited from the Medes and the Persians. Daniel, Esdras and the Book of Esther show with what religious care their historians chronicled every event. Doubtless, the same practice flourished under Firoz Shāh.

I have taken much pains, though to no purpose, to discover later allusions to the tunnels by European travellers. Hakluyt, Purchas, Coverte, A. Sharpey, R. Rowles, R. Harcourt, Methold, Hawkins, Coryate, Roe, Terry, Herbert, Mandelsloe, Manrique, Fryer, Bernier, Thevenot, Tavernier, Peter Van den Broecke's travels, Van der Aa's collection, Van Twist, afford

no further clue.

The only objection which some of my friends have formulated against the above quotations is that the tunnels may have served the purpose of aqueducts. We know, for instance, that the underground aqueduct of the Anīkpūr tank, built by Anīk Pūl Tannor at Delhi, is large enough to allow of a man standing upright. We read also that Firoz Shāh connected the Sarsutī River with the Salimah by running a tunnel into the hill

² Cf. Saiyad Ahmad Khān, op. cit., Part II, Chap. IV; or Journ.

Asiat., 5e Série, Vol. XVI, 1860, p. 235.

¹ E. A. Duncan in his new edition of Keene's Handbook for Visitors to Delhi, Calcutta, Thacker, 1906, p. 39, refers the text we quoted from Carr Stephen to Shams-i Siráj, a historian of Firoz Shāh's time. If the text could be found, the question under debate would be settled once for all. But, the passage is not in Elliot's extracts. "I have glanced," writes Mr. Thompson, 'through the Persian text of Shams-i-Sirāj, and can find no reference. Nor is there, so far as I have seen, any reference in the chapters of Barnī's Tārīkh-i Firoz Shāhī, which deal with Firoz Shāh's architectural achievements in the early part of his reign; but they do not include the Kotla. Again, Taimur does not mention them (see the Malfūzāt and the Zafar-nāma in Elliot). There is no mention of them, too, in the Futūhāt Firoz Shāhī, though it was hardly to be expected, considering the nature of the work."

of earth through the midst of which the Sarsuti was flowing. These instances notwithstanding, the theory advanced by my friends cannot, in the light of the Ain, be encouraged. Other texts should be brought forward. We have none. Future excavations may show that the Ain is wrong; meanwhile, we must be satisfied that it is correct.

Aqueducts terminate in tanks or wells, or connect rivers. We have no allusions to the Delhi tunnels having had such exits. Had they been aqueducts, the explanations of the \overline{Ain} could not have been entertained, as the matter was easy to verify, at a time when the passages were in a much better state of preservation than they are now. They were certainly not used as aqueducts in Abu-l Fazl's time, i.e. before 1596-1597, when the \overline{Ain} was completed, nor in Monserrate's time (1581). nor in the lifetime of Akbar (1542-1605), or else, Akbar's favourite historian should have known. From Firoz Sháh's death (1388) to Akbar's birth, only 154 years had intervened. This leaves scarcely time enough for a public fact attested by a public monument to be lost sight of. Old men must have been living in Akbar's time who had conversed with octogenarians born under Firoz Shāh's reign. Besides, even if oral tradition could have become altered in so short a time, there were the written records, daily read and daily consulted by Akhar's secretaries and historians. At Akbar's death, the inventory of his treasures shows that his library contained 24,000 volumes. most of them ancient works, the whole being valued at Rs. 6,463,731.2

Is it too much to hope that, before the arrival of the King-Emperor, something will be done to restore, or at least to explore, these tunnels? However great the difficulties may have been to construct them,—and I am told that the nature of the ground near Delhi must have made the work one of exceptional difficulty—Firoz Shāh overcame them. What difficulty could there be to examine what purpose the tunnels served? We are told that they exist, and where they are. What more can we wish?

While these notes were going through the press, I received some further correspondence, which, though not affecting our main argument, it will be useful to record.

Cf. Tárikh i Mubárak-Sháhí in Elliot's Hist. of India, IV, p. 11.
 Manelque, Itinerario Oriental, Roma, 1653. p. 417.

MANDELSLOE, Voyages and Travels into the East Indies, 2nd Ed., London, 1669, p. 37.

VAN TWIST: Generale Beschryvinghe van Indien in Tweede Deel van. het begin ende voortgangh der Vereenighde Nederl. Geoctr. Oost. Indische Compagnie, 1646.

DE LAET, De Imperio Magni Mogolis, Lugd.-Batav., 1631, p. 139.

Mr. W. Kirkpatrick informs me that Miss Wagentrieber wrote a pamphlet—now out of stock—stating that during the mutiny at Delhi Simon Fraser escaped by hiding in a hollow which had the reputation of being the entrance to a disused tunnel.

Mr. Qāsim Hasīr, a research scholar, working at the Asiatic Society Rooms, has consulted, though in vain, the following works:—

1. Ain-i-Akbari, the text, and the translations by Gladwin,

Blochmann and Jarrett.

2. Akbar-nāma, the text and translation by H. Beveridge.

3. Elliot's *Hist. of India*, 8 vols.; the portions containing the reign of Firoz Shāh, his public works, descriptions of Delhi, Firozābād, Jahānnumā, etc.

. Malfūzāt-i Timūrī; the portion given in Elliot's Hist.

of India.

- 5. Matla'u-l Sa'dain of Abdur Razzaq, text, and portions in Elliot.
- 6. Muntakhabu-l Tawārīkh of Badāūnī, accounts of Firoz Shāh.
 - 7. Muntakhabu-l Lubāb of Khāfi Khān, id.

8. Tabaqāt-i Akbarī, id.

9. $T\bar{a}rikh$ -i Firishta, the text and translation by Dow, especially the chapters devoted to Firoz Shāh's reign, and the descriptions of Delhi, Firozābād, etc.

10. Tārīkh-i Firoz Shāhī of Barnī and Shams-i-Sirāj, the

text throughout, and the portions in Elliot.

11. Tārīkh-i Mubārak Shāhî of Yahya bin Aḥmad, a rare history of Firoz Shāh and his successors,—the portions in Elliot.

12. Tūzak-i Bābarī, the portions in Elliot.

13. Zafar-nāma of Yazdī: the chapter dealing with Timur's conquest of India and the portions given in Elliot.

Finally, Mr. J. P. Thompson completes his bibliographical notes on Ahmad Khān's Āṣāru-s-sunādīd. "Chance has thrown in my way a copy of the rare edition of 1854. It has two title-pages, one in English, the other in Urdu. The English title-page runs: 'Asaroos-sunnadeed,..composed by Syud Ahmed Khan...in the year A.D. 1852 Delhi, printed at the Indian Standard Press, by William Demonte, 1£54.' The Urdu title-page shows that the Urdu lithographing was done in the Royal Press in the Palace. It too bears date 1854. It has Sayyid Ahmad Khān's seal on it, and the words: 'jis kitāb par musannif kī mohr na ho, wah kitāb chorī kī hai.' The inferences I drew formerly are, I find, correct.''

I have also come across a reference to a second edition,

Lucknow, 1876.

19. Interaction of Hydrazine Sulphate with Nitrites, and a new method for the determination of "Nitritic" Nitrogen.

By Biman Behari Dey, M.Sc., and Hemendra Kumar Sen, B.A.

Consequent upon the discovery of the unstable alkylamine nitrites (vide Trans. Chemical Society 1911) by Rây and Rakshit, we undertook the preparation, if possible, of the nitrites of Hydrazine and Hydroxylamine which are strong bases. The possibility of a hydrazine nitrite was further strengthened by the existence of a dithionate of the same base which has been described by Sabanieff (Journ. Chem. Soc. 1899, Abstracts. Part II, page 364). Accordingly, we tried to prepare the salt by a double decomposition between Barium-Nitrite and Hydrazine Sulphate. On mixing the solutions of the two substances there was immediate precipitation of Barium Sulphate, with greater or less evolution of gas, according as the reaction was carried out at the ordinary temperature of the laboratory (32°C.) or at O° by immersing in melting ice; the action in each case was, however, found to be progressive, the evolution of gas being accelerated with the lapse of time. The very slight evolution of gas at the lower temperatures, together with the precipitation of Barium Sulphate, seemed to point to the formation of Hydrazine Nitrite in solution in the cold, which readily decomposes with the rise of temperature. The isolation of the pure nitrite had therefore to be given up, and our attention was directed to a systematic examination of the gases evolved, hoping thereby to gain some information as to the nature of the reactions occurring. It was at first supposed that the nitrous acid liberated would act upon the Hydrazine or amido-amine, in the same manner as it does with ammonia or amines, the reaction proceeding according to the following equation.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H.NH_2 + HO.NO} &= \mathbf{H.OH + N_2 + H_2O.} \\ \mathbf{NH_2} & \mathbf{HO.NO} & \mathbf{OH} & \mathbf{N_2} & \mathbf{H_2O} \\ \mathbf{H.NH_2} & \mathbf{HO.NO} & \mathbf{OH} & \mathbf{N_2} & \mathbf{H_2O} \end{aligned}$$

It would appear from the above that the reaction would be accompanied by the formation of hydrogen peroxide in solution, and a regular search was therefore made for the latter. On applying the ether-chromic acid and titanium solu-

tion tests, however, hydrogen peroxide was found to be absent. The next step was to analyse the evolved gases collected in a eudiometer placed over an inverted funnel remaining under water in a beaker. The eudiometer was, to begin with, filled with a solution of Barium nitrite, the beaker water having some hydrazine sulphate dissolved in it. As the two solutions came in contact with each other, there was a slow evolution of gas observed, the evolution increasing with time. The gas was allowed to collect over night. A rough analysis of the gas next morning showed that it was a mixture consisting of almost equal proportions of nitrogen and nitrous oxide. will be shown later, this proportion was a mere chance, and the large volume of water over which it was collected dissolved out a considerable amount of the soluble gas, namely nitrous Starting with this preliminary observation, accurate experiments were next made in the following way: A fairly strong solution of barium-nitrite (the barium nitrite available in the market being found rather impure, a pure solution obtained by the interaction of Silver Nitrite and Barium Chloride was used instead; was sucked into a Crum's Nitrometer over Mercury, and a small pellet of Hydrazine sulphate in excess was introduced at the bottom. As soon as the hydrazine salt came in contact with the nitrite solution, a steady evolution of gas increasing in vigour with time. was noticed. To complete the reaction quickly, the Nitrometer was vigorously shaken. When there was no further evolution of gas, the Nitrometer was inverted over a cylindrical jar full of water at the ordinary temperature, and the volume immediately read off. Fresh water was now introduced through the "cup" of the Nitrometer and vigorously shaken up until all the nitrous oxide was dissolved and the volume constant. On repeating the same experiment, it was found that although the volume of nitrogen was always constant for the same amount of Barium Nitrite solution, the total volume of gas (N and N,O) collected in two different experiments were hardly coincident. The reason was not far to seek; for, as the dilution of the same quantity of Barium Nitrite solution inside the Nitrometer was varied, the gas volume varied also, increasing with the concentration of the Barium Nitrite and diminishing with the dilution. The divergence between the total volumes of gas is thus obviously due to the increased or diminished dissolution of the nitrous oxide in the water employed to dissolve and wash down the Barium Nitrite solution into the Nitrometer. In order, therefore, to obtain the total volume of gas due to the reaction, the solvent water must be reduced to a minimum; indeed, it might be said that the theoretical amount of gas can only be obtained if the two substances could be made to interact in the solid state. In an actual experiment, by using a very concentrated solution of Barium Nitrite and employing the minimum quanVol. VII, No 4.] Action of Hydrazine Sulphate & Nitrites. 111 [N.S.]

tity of water to wash it down (about 2 c.c.), the maximum amount of gas was obtained, and the proportion of nitrous oxide to nitrogen was found to be no longer 1:1, but approximately 2:1; in fact, on the assumption that the deficit in the amount of gas was due to nitrous oxide dissolved in the water employed, and applying the usual corrections for the solubility of nitrous oxide in water at the temperature of the experiment (32°C), the proportion of N₂O: N₂ was found to be exactly 2:1.

The ordinary decomposition of the di-acid hydrazine nitrite, excluding the hydrogen peroxide theory, would seem to

proceed along the following lines:---

This equation, though quite analogous to the equation representing the reaction between hydroxylamine and nitrous

acid giving rise to hyponitrous acid N—OH, fails to explain the gasometric relations between nitrous oxide and nitrogen actually observed. The fact should not be lost sight of, that the experiment was conducted with excess of the Hydrazine salt, and consequently, the formation of the monacid hydrazine nitrite is only too possible, which would decompose thus:—

$$\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{NH_3} \\
\downarrow \\
\mathbf{NH_2}
\end{array} + \mathbf{NO.OH} = \mathbf{NH_3} + \mathbf{N_2O} + \mathbf{H_2O}.$$

Taking the two equations together, we find that the proportion of nitrous oxide to nitrogen actually observed, exactly agrees with that demanded by the above equations conjointly. As, according to the above equations, ammonia is one of the products of reaction, it must have remained in solution as the sulphate. That ammonia is really formed, was demonstrated beyond doubt by treating the solution remaining after the reaction, with caustic alkali, when a strong smell of ammonia was perceived. As will be shown subsequently, the quantitative determination of the ammonia formed is useless, in so far as the determination of the ratio of the nitrogen evolved to the total nitritic nitrogen of Barium nitrite, would be a better evidence and check as to the reactions actually occurring. It is important to note here, that the above statements have been found to be true not only of Barium nitrite, but also of the nitrites of the alkalis, the alkaline-earth metals, of those of the heavy metals, etc., and in fact of nitrites in general. In support of what has preceded, the actual_data of a few of the numerous experiments done are given below:-

Experiment with Barium Nitrite Solution.

I. 0.1 c.c. of the stock Barium Nitrite solution gave nitrogen = 3.2 c.c. at 30° C by the "Urea" method.

Therefore real "nitritic" nitrogen = 1.6 c.c.

0.5 c.c. of the above solution diluted to 8 c.c. in the "Crum" gave with solid excess of hydrazine sulphate 11.5 c.c. total gas. and 5.3 c.c. nitrogen.

The solubility of nitrous oxide in 8 c.c. of water at 30° C (temperature of the experiment) is given by the following

 $00068 \times 900 = 55$ nearly.

Hence for 8 c.c. dilution, solubility = $8 \times .55 = 4.4$ c.c. Adding this to the 11.5 c.c. gas actually obtained, we have total volume of mixed gas equal to 15.9 c.c.; that required according to the equations stated above is equal to 16.0 c.c. The amount of "nitritic" nitrogen in 0.5 c.c. of the Barium nitrite solution, as found above, is equal to 8 c.c. The nitrogen obtained in the present experiment by the action of hydrazine sulphate upon the 0.5 c.c. Barium nitrite solution is equal to 5.3 c.c. The ratio of the latter nitrogen to the former is therefore equal to $\frac{5\cdot3}{8\cdot0} = \frac{2}{3}$, which is the ratio expected.

A better confirmation of the above equations cannot be expected, and the quantitative estimation of ammonia has hence been thought useless.

II. 0.5 c.c. of the same solution diluted to 5 c.c. gave total volume of gas equal to 13.1 c.c. and nitrogen = 5.3 c.c. Allowing for solubility by the above formula, $S = 5 \times .55 = 2.75$ c.c.

Therefore total volume is equal to 13.1 + 2.75 = 15.85 c.c.

Theoretical volume = 16.0 c.c.

III. 0.5 c.c. diluted to 2 c.c. gave total volume of gas equal to 14.7 c.c. and N = 5.3 c.c.

$$S = 2 \times .55 = 1.1$$
 c.c.

Therefore total volume is equal to 14.7 + 1.1 = 15.8 c.c. Theoretical volume equal to 16 c.c.

Experiment with solution of Potassium Nitrite.

I. 0.5 c.c. of the stock KNO2 solution gave by the "Urea" method N = 4.2 c.c.;

Therefore real "nitritic" nitrogen = 2.1 c.c.

2.0 c.c. of the above stock solution, with solid excess of hydrazine sulphate, diluted to 6.4 c.c. in the Nitrometer, gave total gas equal to 13.1 c.c. and N=5.65 c.c.

Allowing for solubility by the above formula, $S = 6.4 \times .55$

= 3.52 c.c.

Therefore total volume = $13 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 52 = 16 \cdot 62$ c.c.

Theoretical volume = 16.8 c.c.

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- II. 2.0 c.c. of the above stock solution of KNO_2 with solid excess of hydrazine sulphate diluted to 4.8 c.c. gave total gas equal to 14.4 c.c. and N=5.6 c.c.

Allowing for the solubility, $S = 4.8 \times .55 = 2.64$ c.c.

Therefore total volume equal to 17.04 c.c.

Theoretical volume equal to 16.8 c.c.

Experiment with Silver Nitrite Solution.

Since the above nitrite is sparingly soluble in cold water, the nitritic contents of convenient volumes of this solution were very small, and the gas obtained also small, most of the nitrous oxide being held in solution by the large amount of water used in dissolving the salt.

2.0 c.c. of the stock solution gave by the "Urea" method

N = 2.6 c.c., therefore real N = 1.3 c.c.

80 c.c. of the above solution diluted to 10 c.c. in the "Crum" gave total volume of gas equal to 50 c.c.

and N = 3.45 c.c.; $S = 10 \times .55 = 5.5$; therefore total volume = 5 + 5.5 = 10.5 c.c. Theoretical total volume = 10.4 c.c.

Experiment with tetra-methylammonium nitrite.

A pure sample of this substance prepared by the double decomposition of silver nitrite and tetra-methylammonium iodide was taken.

I. 2.0 c.c. of the stock solution gave by the "urea" method N=4.6 c.c., therefore real "nitritic" N=2.3 c.c.

4 c.c. of the above stock solution with solid excess of hydrazine sulphate gave at a dilution of 6 c.c., total volume of gas equal to 6.1 c.c. and nitrogen = 3.1 c.c.

Allowing for the solubility, $S = 6 \times .55 = 3.3$ c.c.

Therefore total volume equal to 6.1 + 3.3 = 9.4 c.c.

Theoretical volume = 9.2 c.c.

II. 4.0 c.c. of the stock solution at a dilution of 10 c.c. gave total gas equal to 4.0 c.c. and N=3.1 c.c.

Allowing for the solubility, $S = .55 \times 10 = 5.5$ c.c.

Therefore total volume is equal to 4.0 + 5.5 = 9.5 c.c.

Theoretical volume equal to 9.2 c.c.

Obviously the 10 c.c. of water was not saturated with nitrous oxide, and the volume, therefore, a little in excess.

Experiment with benzylamine nitrite.

(Benzylamine nitrite has been isolated recently in this laboratory by Rây and Dutt as beautiful pale yellow plates, subliming in vacuo unchanged).

1.0 c.c. of the stock solution gave by the "urea" method

nitrogen = 2.0 c.c., therefore real N=1 c.c.

4.0 c.c. of the above gave at a dilution of 8.0 c.c. inside

the "Crum" with solid excess of hydrazine sulphate, total volume of gas equal to 3.7 c.c. and N = 2.7 c.c.; $S = 8 \times .55 = 4.4$ c.c. Therefore total volume = 8.1 c.c.; theoretical volume = 8.0 c.c.

The nitrites of ammonium, sodium, calcium, strontium, etc., behave analogously, and it is useless to multiply examples. is singular that amylnitrite did not respond to the above reaction, and in fact no gas was at all evolved. The reason for it is evident. Non-ionised nitrites cannot take part in the reaction.

Estimation of Nitritic Nitrogen.

The most far-reaching result of the reactions indicated above, is the very easy and convenient estimation of the nitritic content of nitrites in general, as well as those of allied organic bases, e.g., tetralkylammonium bases. On comparing the figures above, it will be seen that in all cases, the volume of nitrogen evolved is strictly 2.3rds of what is contained in the amount of nitrite taken for experiment. It will not be useless to repeat that this exactness of the volume of the residual gas. namely nitrogen, confirms undoubtedly the two equations laid down before. It can be claimed that the present method is at least as convenient and as accurate as the "Urea" method. and the operation requires not more than 15 minutes. Nearly 50 determinations of nitritic content have been made up to date, and the two-thirds rule has been found to be unswervedly correct. The following figures will justify this assertion :-

"Nitritie" nitrogen required by the "Urea" method given under "A", and that by the hydrazine method, under "B".

A_{i}	В.
$4 \cdot 35$	4.35
8.7	8.7
8.7	8.75
5 ·8	5.8
6.65	6.7
etc.	etc.

It is worth while to note, that in practice, three washings with about 20 c.c. of water in each case, are quite sufficient to dissolve the nitrous oxide, and the extremely slight solubility of nitrogen hardly interferes with the result. We can very safely recommend it to be used along with the "Urea" method, if not in preference to it.

We are at present engaged in investigating the actions of the persulphates upon hydrazine and hydroxylamine salts, and

hope to communicate the results in a short time.

In conclusion, we beg to express our thanks to Dr. P. C. Rây for his encouragement, and for allowing us to use some of his newly prepared Amine nitrites.

20. "Gaveta."

By WILLIAM IRVINE.

In Father Hosten's article on "the Marsden MSS. in the British Museum," Journal, A.S.B., Vol. VI, No. 8, 1910, pp. 437 to 461, Mr. Philipps remarks (p. 445) that on the documents we have sometimes the word Gaveta, and Father Hosten's note (3) adds: "a drawer, in reference to the "drawers in which the papers were kept." I think this explanation can be made more definite by a reference to p. vi in the Introduction to F. C. Danver's "Report on the Portuguese Records..., 1892." "The Gavetas Antigas (old "drawers) is a miscellaneous collection of 195 bundles.... "They were originally kept in 20 old drawers in the Archivo "da Torre do Tombo." The documents in the Marsden MSS. which are marked Gaveta possibly belonged originally to the same collection as the Gavetas Antigas, now in Lisbon.

Another point in the article may be cleared up. On p. 454 Mr. Beveridge, referring to a mention of Sir Thomas Roe by Father Botelho, S.J., suggests that "it might hint "to some MSS. of Roe which have disappeared." At Mr. Beveridge's instance I consulted the Portuguese version (the original text) and found the Father spoke there of "a little book" and called it a "Commentario." On submitting the matter to Mr. W. Foster, he recognized at once that the reference was to J. deLaet's "Commentarius," published in 1631. The full title is "De Imperio Magni Mogolis, sive "India Vera, Commentarius, e variis auctoribus congestus," Leiden, Elzevir Press, 1631. Among the various authors used (Preface, p. 4) was "Thomas Roeus, Eques."

21. Some Notes on Urdu Grammar.

By LIBUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT, F.A.S.B., Secretary, Board of Examiners.

The following points of Urdu grammar appear to have escaped the notice of grammarians:—

- 1. The precative form of the Imperative (کیجیدگا kijiyegā) is both masculine and feminine.
- 2. While the verb رهنا rahnā suffixed to the Conjunctive Participle of transitive or intransitive verbs, signifies 'to do after effort or determination' (vide Hind. Man.), its future suffixed to the root of an intransitive verb indicates indefinite time—"some time or other." Fath ho-hī-kar rahegī فقي عوهي كر رهيكي means victory is certain," but fath ho-hī rahegī فقي رهيكي = victory will be ours some time or other."
- 3. The shortened form of the Conjunctive Participle indicates haste. Thus in وق خم تهونک مجهس لرن کو کهرا هوگیا wuh kham thonk mujh se larne ko kharā ho-gayā, the shortened form thonk, indicates more haste than thonk-kar would.

- 4. The repetition of an adjective is not merely intensive as indicated in the grammars, thus تُهندَي تُهندَي الله thandī thandī hawā,en does not mean "very cool breezes," but "pleasantly cool breezes." Examples:—
- (a) جهواتے جهواتے جهواتے لڑے chhote chhote larke, "various, or many small, or very small children" (according to the tone of voice); here the repetition would usually indicate plurality only,—as also in uski chhoti chhoti ankhen hain, "it has small eyes" (or very small eyes)

- هري هري گهاس (b) مري هري هري گهاس harī ghās, "grass pleasantly green all over, green everywhere"; lāl lāl chihra, "a face red all over" (in a flattering sense or otherwise).
- (c) taza taz
- (d) موركها هوركها موركها والمراقع في المراقع في المرا
- (e) سے سے بیان کرو sach sach bayān karo, "tell the whole truth and the truth only."

It will be seen that the repetition of the adjective before a plural noun may be either intensive or simply plural, thus, achche achche parhānewāle="many very good teachers"; chhoṭī chhoṭī kitāben alag rakho, barī barī alag means "put all the small books apart together and all the big ones apart together." Before a singular noun the repetition does not signify 'very'.

a common marco o marco

APRIL, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 5th April 1911, at 9-15 P.M.

E. DENISON Ross, Esq., Ph.D., F.A.S.B., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. W. F. Bolton, Mr. I. H. Burkill, Dr. W. A. K. Christie, Rai Bahadur Matilal Ganguli, Mr O. C. Ganguli, The Hon'ble Mr. H. G. Graves, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice H. Holmwood, Mr. D. Hooper, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J.; Mr. Jas. Insch, Mr. C. H. Kesteven, Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S.; Mr. W. S. Milne, The Hon'ble Mr. C. E. A. W. Oldham, Rev. A. C. Ridsdale, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, Mr. H. P. Watts, Rev. A. W. Young.

Visitors:—Mr. and Mrs. A. C. Atkinson, Mrs. Burkill, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice H. R. H. Coxe, Miss Graves, Mrs. Holmwood, Lieut.-Col. F. Cunynghame-Hughes, Mrs. Insch, Mr. C. H. R. Thorn.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Forty-six presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Babu Harendra Krishna Mukerji had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The General Secretary reported the death of Monsieur Paul Regnaud, an Honorary Member of the Society.

The following five gentlemen were balloted for and elected as Ordinary Members:—

Babu Hira Lal Rai Bahadur, B.A., Extra Assistant Commissioner, Nagpur, C.P., proposed by Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; The Hon'ble Mr. J. S. Meston, C.S.I., C.S., Secretary to the Government of India, Finance Department, proposed by Lieut-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S., seconded by Dr. E. Denison Ross; Mr. H. S. Bion, B.Sc., F.G.S., proposed by Mr. H. H. Hayden, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; The Hon'ble Sir A. H. MacMahon, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.A., Secretary to the Government of India, I.M.S., seconded by Dr. E. Denison Ross; Khan Bahadur Sheikh Almad Husen, Paryawan, Partabgarh, Dist. Oudh, proposed by the Hon'ble Mr. H. Nelson Wright, seconded by Mr. E. de M. Humphries.

Mr. O. C. Ganguly gave a lecture on "JAPANESE PAINT-ING and SCULPTURE," with lantern slides.

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's Rooms on Wednesday, the 12th April, 1911, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT.-COL. C. R. M. GREEN, M.D., F.R.C.S., I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. U. N. Brahmachari, Lieut.-Col. J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. G. C. Chatterjee, Dr. H. M. Crake, Dr. B. N. Ghosh, Dr. A. M. Leake, Dr. Indu Madhab Mallick, Major E. E. Waters, Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors: - Drs. S. C. Bural and N. K. Sirkar.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The following cases were shown:-

- (1) By Col. Green-
- 1. A case of Syphilis which had been remarkably benefited by Salvarsan.

In the discussion which followed Dr. Brahmachari mentioned that he had had very disappointing results with the use of Salvarsan in five cases in Kala Azar, Dr. Martin Leake had two cases of Kala Azar with similarly disappointing results, and Col. Calvert one case in which no benefit resulted. On the other hand, the Secretary stated that Major Murray, I.M.S., had encouraging results in three cases of Kala Azar.

- 2. Col. Calvert showed a case for diagnosis in which there was marked muscular atrophy and weakness combined with great deformity of the chest and vertebral column, the muscular and skeletal changes having developed recently and simultaneously.
- 3. Dr. Brahmachari showed some specimens of Anopheles Listoni found in Calcutta which had been identified by Capt. Christophers and which showed certain peculiarity in which they differed from the previously described Anopheles Listoni.

4. Papers—

- (a) On the Biology of Black Mycetoma, by Dr. S. C. Chatterji.
- (b) On the Epidemic Fever in Lower Bengal, commonly

known as Burdwan Fever, by Dr. U. Brahma-chari.

The papers were discussed by Col. Green, Col. Calvert, Dr. G. C. Chatterji and Capt. Megaw.

22. A Dictionary of the Pahari Dialects as spoken in the Punjab Himalayas.

By Pandit Tika Ram Joshi, Author of a Grammar and Dictionary of Kandwari. Edited by H. A. Rose, C.S., Panjab.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

Reference may be made to the Supplements to the Punjahi Dictionary, No. 1, by the Revd. T. Grahame Bailey, C.M.S., published by this Society.

A

A, a particle added to a verb to make the compound participle as bolia = having said; jáia = having gone.

K, adv. Yes. (Also anhán.)

A', v. Is. As: Se keti a? Where is he?

Abé, adv. Now, at this time.

Abkhorá, n.m. (P. ábkhorá.) A small deep pot with a rim.

Achhú or -á, adj.; f. -í, pl. -é. Good. adv. Very well.

Addá, n.m. A wooden frame.

A'd, n.f. (1) Moisture, wetness. (2) Half. -o-ad, m. The half.

(3) (H. yád) Remembrance. -awni, v.t. ir. To remember. -rákhni, v.t. re. To keep in memory.

Adhu or -á, adj.; f. -í, pl. -é. Half, semi-

Adkan, n.m. Elbow.

Adli, n.f. An area equal to 4 bighás of land.

Admeň, adv. Mid-way.

Adr, n.m. (S. Adara.) Homage, respect.

Adri n.f. (S. Adara.) Respect, honour.

Afarnú, v.i. re. To swell, puff up; f.-i, pl.-é.

Afí, pro. Self. -é. By it-, him-, or herself.

A'g, n.f. (S. Agni.) Fire. (Also ági.)

Agá, n.m. Fore.

Agalnu, v.t. e. To shut in, to lock up; f. -i, pl. -e.

Agardán, n.m. A vessel for burning incense.

Aggal (S. Argala.) A wooden bolt for a gate or door. -nu, v.t. re. To shut in.

Aggar, n.m. (S. Ageru, or Aguru.) A fragrant wood = (Aguilaria agallocha).

Agé, adv. Before, a little before (this).

Agi, adv. (1) Some time ago; (2) lately; (3) fire.

Agjhárá, jhárá, n.m. A tinder-box.

Aglá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. The former.

Agri, ágré, adv. Before this, some time ago.

Ai, v. art., second person singular of Honu, to be. See U.

Tù gi nokhá michh: "Thou art a wonderful man."

Aimbú, n.m. A kind of deer, said to be like a mule, found on the Sháli hill in the Bhajji State.

Aimrai, n.f. The wild grape.

 \overline{Ain} , $\overline{n.m.}$ The flying-fox. (Also en, een.)

Ain, ad. Good; -honi, to be good: Ain howi yara jetu awi guwan, "Friend, it is well that you have come."

Ainshu, adv. This year.

Ainthnu, v.i. re. To twist, to strut; f.-i, pl.-é.

Aiyá, int. Oh, ah.

A'j. adv. To-day. Ajje, adv. Just to-day.

Ajku, adj.; m. -á; f. -í, pl. -é. Of to-day.

Akal, n.f. (P. aql.) Wisdom, sense. -bir, n.m. A medicine (Datisca cannibima).

Akhar, n.m. (S. Akshara). Letters, characters (pl.).

Akhí, n.f. (S Akshin.) Eyes. (Dim. Akhtí, pretty little eye).

Akhtai, n. pl. See Athkai.

Akrnu, v.i. re. To be stiff, to strut; f. -i, pl. -é.

A'l, n.m. An esculent root, like the potato $(kach\bar{a}l\bar{u})$.

Alakh-jagáwná, v.i. re. To ask for alms.

Alti, n.f. A drink. -bharni, v.i. re. To drink.

Amá, n.f. (S. Ambá.) Mother.

Amal, n.m. Intoxication.

Amb, n.m. (S. Amra.) Mango. (Also ámb).

Ambar, adv. Up.; pre. above. (Also ambr.) S. Amvara, the sky.

Aminchárí, n.f. A post held by the Kanwar, said to be equivalent to Private Secy. (used in the Mandi State).

Amlu, -á, m.; -is, a; pl. Sour, acid.

A'n, n.f. An oath, a curse.

Anchal, n.m. (S. Anchala, a cloth.) Corner of a cloth or scarf.

Anchlá, n.m. Ribbon which is more than two fingers in breadth.

Aňdgaļ, n.m. A wasp; pl. Aňdhá, m.; f. -i, pl. é; adj. Blind.

Andhá = dhundh. n.f. Misrule; -máchní, -hoijáni. v.i. re. & ir. To suffer from misrule or bad government.

Andhoù, -a, adj. m.; f. -i, pl. -c. Unwashed, unclean.

Andi, n.f. See Anni.

Andr, ad. (H. andar.) Inside. -o dá, adv. From inside.

Andrélá, n.m. The auspicious time at which a bride enters her husband's home (Syn. wásni).

Andro-dá or -fa, adv. From the inside.

Andro-khe, adv. To the inside.

Andról, n.m. See Narol.

Angalu, v.i. re. To be entangled, to be embroiled; f. -i, pl. -é. Angant, ad. Innumerable, numerous. (Alike in all genders.)

Angulí, n.f. A finger.

Ani, n.f. (1) An edge; (2) a band of soldiers; (3) a battle.

Aň-iň, adj. A little. -jyá, ad. m. A small quantity.

Aní-rákhnu, v.t. re. To keep ready. -denu, v.t. re. To allow to bring.

Aňj, n.f.; pl. -o. Sinews.

Aňkar, n.m. Revenue in kind (used in the Mandí State).

Anmuk, adj. Durable, imperishable (alike in all genders).

Annal, n.f. (S. Anjali.) The cavity formed by putting the palms of the hands together.

Anni, n.f. Testicles (also andi).

An-nu, v.t. re. To bring, to fetch; f. -1, pl. -é.

Anri, n.f. A small piece of land left unploughed.

Ant, n.m. pl. -0 (S. Anta). End.

A'nt, n.f. pl. -o. Enmity, discord.

Anthi, v. Is. Ni-. Is not.

Aňwaļá, n.m. (S. Amalaka.) Emblica myrabolan (Phylanthus emblica). pl. -e.

Apņu, -á, pro.; f. -i, pl. -ć. One's own.

Appe, pro. See Appu. (Bághal, Kunihár and Nárágarh.) Appé kurí ghar ná basdi, horánu sikh dasdi. "The girl herself doesn't live with her husband, but she gives hints to others."

Appú, áppí, pro. Myself, yourself, himself, herself.

A'r, n.m. (H. yár.) A friend.

Ará, n.m. (1) A friend; (2) a kind of long saw.

Ará, ad. m.; /.-i, pl.-ć. Aslant, crooked.

Arhá, n.m. (S. Adhaka.) A grain measure equal to 4 páthás.

Arhat, Arat. n.f. A tax levied on all imports. Jubbal. Ari, n.f. (1) The handle of a plough; (2) adj. crooked.

Ari, n.f. (1) The handle of a plough; (2) aug. croo

Arí, n.f. (H. yâri.) Friendship, acquaintance.

Arié-kharié, adv. In trouble.

Arj, n.m. pl. -0 (P. arz.) A request.

Arnu, v.i. re. To insist; f. i. pl. -é.

Arshu, n.m. (H. árshí.) A looking-glass.

Arú, n.m. The hill apricot (pl. no singular).

Arusa, n.m. A medicinal plant.

Asau, v. Is, or are. (From the irreg. verb honu, to be.)

Asé, v. Art (2nd pers. sing. pres. of honu, to be).

Asé, pro. We (1st pers. pl. nominative).

Asé, pro. lst per. pl. We. (From Punjábí, así.)

A'sh, n.f. (S. Ashá.) Hope.

Ashi, ad. 80; -wáň, 80th.

Ashiyá, n.m. (S. Ashíti = 80.) A fine of Rs. 80 in cash, paid to a ruler at a $j\acute{a}gr\acute{a}$.

Ashu, n.m. (S. Ashru.) Tears. Sháré muin sháshu shánwne áye áshu. "Her mother-in-law died in June, she weeps for her in July" (implying inconsistency). (Also ássú.)

Asklu, n.m. A pudding, made of rice-flour.

Asrá, n.m. (S. Ashraya.) Hope. -rákhņá, v.i. re. To rely on.

Astáj, n.m. (P. ustád.) Clever man. (Also stáj.)

Asthán, n.m. (S. Sthána.) A place, especially of a deity.

Astmi, athen (S. Ashtami.) n.f. The eighth day of the bright or dark half of a month.

Astú, n.m. pl. Human bones sent to the Ganges, after cremation. (Also fúl.)

Athkai, athké, n.m. pl. The forget-me-not. (The word is only used as a plural and is also applied to the burrs which get entangled in woollen clothes.

Athth, ad. (S. Ashta), 8.

Athwárá, n.m. (S. Ashtavára, 8 days.) Daily begār or corvée, in which each pargana has to supply three coolies a day for various duties to the State (Kuthar State): lit. = 8 days' free labour in the darbâr (Jubbal). In Bushahr thwárá.

Atkanu v.i. re. To stop, to wait, to retain; f. -i, pl. -é.

Atkarki-jeolá, n.m. A term for exceptionally inferior land, for which cash payment was made. (Kullu, Lyall's Sett. Rep., 1875.)

Attá, n.m. (H. átá.) Flour.

Aukhá, adj. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. In trouble: also difficult.'

Aukhi, n.f. Difficulty, trouble.

Aunshu, adv. See Ainshu.

Aurá, ad. m.; /. -i, pl. -é. Unfilled, half filled. (Also auru.)

Auré-bhág, n.m. Evil fate, unluckiness.

Auth, n.f. The right of the youngest brother to an excess share for his marriage expenses, if he be unmarried.

Awanu, v.t. re. To come; f. -i, pl. -é.

Kwi-janu, v.i. ir. To arrive; f. -i, pl. -é. (Also awnu.)

Awun, pro. I (1st pers. sing.) (Also An). It becomes muwen with the past tense of a transitive verb. As: Muwen bolu tu na de, "I said, 'you should not go.''

Awru, -á, ad. m.; f. -i. pl. -é. Somewhat empty, not quite full.

В

Bábá, n.m. Father, progenitor.

Bábru, n.m. A kind of cake (always used in the plural).

Bá'ch, n.f. Dampness, wet.

Bachár, n.m. (S. Vichára.) A curse. -dene, v.t. rc. To curse. Bacháwnu, v.t. re. To save.

Báchchhá, n.m. (P. pádsháh.) A king, emperor.

Bachér, n.m. Storing curds and butter (instead of eating them) in order to make clarified butter.

Bachnó-de-ánnu, v.t. re. To conciliate, to compromise; f.-1, pl.-é. Bachháwaní, n.f. A subscription. -páni, v.t. re. To subscribe. Bachháwnu, v.t. re. To spread or lay out (a bed).

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Bachhawul, n.m. A broom. -denu, v.i. re. To sweep.

Bachhánu, v.t. re. (H. bichháná.) (1) To spread a bed; f.-í, pl.-é. (2) To subscribe.

Báchhu, or -á, n.m. f. -í, pl. -é. A calf.

Bachnu, v.i. re. To escape; f. -i, pl. -é.

Badal, n.m. An answer, a reply. -dená, v.i. ir. To reply.

Bädám, n.m. pl. (H. bádám.) Almonds.

Badár, n.m. A kinsman. -nu, v.i. re. To act like a kinsman.

Badáru, n.m. (1) A sept of Kanets. (2) A parganá in the Koti State.

Bádhá, n.m. Enhancement, increase in taxes.

Badháwnu, v.t. re. (1) To extinguish, to put out; f. -i, pl. -é. (2) To enlarge.

Bádhi, n.m. f. -an. A carpenter.

Badhku or -á, ad. m. f. -í, pl. -é. Without limit.

Bádhnu, v.t. re. To cut; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bádli, n.f. (H. bádal.) Clouds. Hyún ghalalá badlie. The snow will melt with the clouds.

Bádlu or -á, adj. m. Cloudy.

Badrá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Larger.

Badru or -á, adj. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. The eldest.

Bádú, n.m. An enemy.

Badúk, n.f. (H. bandúk.) A gun or rifle.

Báfar, adj. Spare.

Báftá, n.m. (H.) Silken cloth.

Bágá, n.m. À dress of honour, a robe.

Bagáná, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Another's, of other person. (Fr. H. bigáná.)

Bagár, n.f. Forced labour, unpaid work, corvée.

Bagárú or -i, n.m. A cooly, a porter.

Baghér, n.m. A boy, a child; pl. -o.

Bágí, n.m. pl. Lawless, disloyal. -honu, v.i. ir. To be disloyal

Bagotú, n.m. Clothing, a dress.

Bágur, n.f. (S. Váyu.) Air, the wind.

Bágti, n.f. A small plot of land.

Báhar, adv. Out or outside.

Bahar, n.f. Enjoyment, pleasure; pl. o.

Báhat, ad. 62. -wán, 62nd.

Bahérá, n.m. Terminalia belerica.

Bahkanu, v.i. re. (1) To become mad. (2) To stray.

Bahnu, vi. re. To flow, to blow; f. -i, pl. -é.

Báhnu, v.t. re. To plough; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bái, n.f. (S. Váyu.) (1) The wind. (2) Bile. (3) 22.

Baichhar, n./. An unchaste woman.

Báih, ad. 22. -wáň, 22nd.

Baij, n.f. (H. byáj, interest.) Interest.

Bái-lani-ráto, v. To go by night.

Bail, n.m. An ox, a bull.

Báilí, n.f. A small kind of adze.

Bain, n.f. Sister. Baindke-honu, v.i. ir. To be out. Bajňdku or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. External. adv. Outside. Bairi, n.m., (S. Baňsha.) (H. báňs). A bamboo. Bairi, n.m. (S. Vairi.) An enemy. Baithnu, v.i. re. To sit down. (Also Bethnu). Bá'j, n.m. Madness. -lágná, v.i. re. To be mad. Bájé, n.m. (H.) A musical instrument. Music. Bäjantri, n.m. pl. Musicians. (Also Bäjgairi, and Túri.) Bajár, n.m. (P. bázár.) Market, mart. Bäjaurá, n.m. The wheel of a stone mill. Bajáwnu, v.t. re. (1) To cause to sound. (2) To beat, to hit. Bäjgairi, n.m. pl. See Bajantri. Bäjhaini, n.f. (H. bujhni.) A riddle, a puzzle. -bujni. v.i. re. To solve a riddle. Bájj, n./. An ulcer on the joints. Bájnu, v.t. re. (H. bajáná.) To sound (a musical instrument). Bájuwá-hundá, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Mad, insane. Bájuwnu, v.i. re. To be mad or insane; f. -ì, pl. -ć. Bájwí-jánu, v.i. ir. To become mad; /. -i, pl. -c. Bá'k, n.f. (S. Vákya.) A speech, a sentence. Bá'kh, n.j. Udder (of a cow). Bakh, adj. Cut up. -karnu, v.t. re. To cut off. Bákhal or bákkhal, n./. Land which is not artificially irrigated. Bákhar, ad. f. A buffalo, she-goat or cow, whose young is more than 6 months old and whose milk has become thick. Bakhat, n.m. (P. waqt.) Time, period. Bakhér, n.f. Scattering coins over a bridegroom. Bakhérá, n.m. (H.) A dispute, tumult, complication. Bakheriá, ad. m. One who disputes. Bakhernu, v.t. re. To scatter. Bakh-honu, v.i. ir. To be cut into two: f.-i. pl.-e.Bakhiyá, n.m. Double sewing. Bakhleli, or bakleli, n.f. Breakfast. Bakhyain or pakyain, n.m. (S. Vyákhyúna.) A proverb, a saying, folklore. Bakílié, adv. As a messenger. Bakílo, n.m. A messenger. Báki-muwáň (a phrase). A curse. Báklu or -á. adj. m.; f. -í, pl -é. Thick. Báknu, v.i. re. To stretch the mouth; f. -i, pl. -é. Bákrá, n.m. A he-goat; f.-í, a she-goat, pl.-é. Bakráthá, n.m. See khárchá. Báktu, n.m.; f. -i, pl. -é. A kid = chhelu and chhelí. Bá'l, n.m. (H. bál.) Hair. Bal, n.m. (S. Vala.) Strength, might, power. Bálá sháhtu láná, v.i. re. To be unhappy, to pine. Bálak, n.m. and f. (S. Válaka.) A babe or infant.

Balcha, n.m. A piece of rope to fasten the plough on its yoke.

Bald, n.m. (S. Barda.) Bullock, an ox. -jorne. v. To plough. Baldá, -u, ad. m.; f.-i, pl. -é. Can. As: se dewi ni baldá. "He cannot go." Tú bí dewi balailá? "Can you go?" Hámi ní dewi baldí. "We cannot go."

Balichh, n.m. Income tax (used in the Mandi State).

Balnu, v. To be able. \cdot

Bálnu, v.t. re. To burn, to kindle, to light.

Balnu, v.i. re. To burn

Bālri, n.t. The French bean.

Baltu, n.m. A small nose-ring.

Bálú, n.m. (1) A nose-ring. (2) Sand.

Báman, n.m. Clothing, a dress. (Fr. bámnu, to wear).

Bámman or Báman, n.m. (S. Bráhmana). The sacred caste of the Hindús.

Bám-nu, v.t. re. To wear, to put on; f. -i, pl. -é.

Ban or bón, n.m. A forest, a jungle. (S. Vana).

Bá'n, n.m. An oak tree, or oak wood.

Báná, n.m. (H. banná.) Boundary.

Báná, n.m. A disguise.

Banáí, n.m. A bear, especially the black bear.

Banákrí. n.f. A kind of wild creeper bearing earring-like vellowish flowers with broad leaves. (Also bnákri.)

Banár, n.m. The name of a deity, also called Mahású.

Banásat, n.m. (S. Vanaspati, a tree in general.) A female spirit which dwells in forests or high mountain slopes. Cattle are believed to be under her charge, and when they are taken to graze in the forests, she is propitiated. (Chambá).

Banáwnu, v.t. re. (H. banáná.) To make; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bánbé, ad. 92, -wáň, 92nd.

Ban-bir, n.m. A tree spirit whose special influence is usually evil.

Báňchni, n./. A reading, or recitation.

Báňchnu, v.t. re. (H. bánchná.) To read.

Bándá, n.m. (H. báňtá.) A share, a part. Baňdé, n.m. pl. Lichen, Aaron's beard.

Bándí, n.m. Prisoner, confinement.

Baňdrú, n.m. pl. (H. band.) The fastenings of a cloak.

Baňduwé, n.m. pl. Prisoners.

Bándar, n.m. pl. (S. Vánara.) Monkeys.

Bándh-nu, v.t. re. (H. bándhná.) To bind up.

Báňdnu, v.t. re. To divide; f. -í. pl. -é.

Bángá or -u, n.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Crooked (also bingu).

Bán-gi, n.f. A sample, specimen.

Bánhti, n.f. See Bánh or Bánhí.

Bani, n.f. A small forest.

Báni, n.f. (S. Váni, language.) A speech.

Báň-íň, n.m. An arm.

Bániyá, n.m. (H. baniá.) A banker or the 3rd caste of the Hindús.

Banjar, n.m. Uncultivated land, grazing ground. Bá'njh, n.f. (S. Vandhyá.) A childless woman, a barren cow. Ban-lau, n.f. The Virginia creeper. (From ban, a forest, and lau, a creeper.) Bán-nu, v.t. re. To fold up, to bind; f. -í, pl. -é. Banu a ki náhí, (phrase.) Whether agreeable or not. Banrái, n.f. An oak forest. Bánslochan, n.m. (S. Vanshalochana.) A white substance, found within the cylinder of the bamboo; a kind of manna highly valued for its cooling and strengthening properties. Báňshti, n./. A medicinal drug. Bánth, n.m. The servant of a chief's kitchen. Báňthiyá, ad.m. Handsome, pretty. n.m. A young man. (Hyúň ghalolá bádlie, soená ghalo suháge. Thind ghalo báňthiyá, kánjri chheori ágé. A couplet The snow will melt with clouds, and gold melts with borax.
So a handsome youth is melted by the harlots. Bá'nu, v.t. re. (1) To strike, to hit. (2) To fire. (3) To plough. f. -í, pl. -é. Báňwíň, n.f. (S. Vapi.) A water pool. (Also boň.) Báoná, n.m. f. -i, pl. -é. (S. Vámana.) A dwarf. wind. Báonal, n.m. A whirl-wind. -áwná, v.i. ir. To blow, of a whirl-Báorí, n.f. (S. Vápí.) (H. báolí.) A water pool. Bápú, n.m. See Bábá. Bár, n.m. Fortification, a fence. -dená, v.i. ir. To enclose. Bár, n.f. pl. -o. (1) A song. (Syn. hár). (2) A day. Bará, adj. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Great, large. n. A kind of cake. Barákhri, n.f. (H. bárákharí.) The alphabet. Barát, n.f. (1) A wedding procession. (2) Dunning. -i-bethná v.i. re. To sit at one's door. Barchhá, n.m.; pl. -é. A spear. f. -í. A small spear. Bardhú, n.f. (1) Defeat. (2) Failure. -máchni or -parni, v.i. re. To be defeated, to fail. Bardnu, v.i. re. To walk, to go on. (Basháhr.) Baréwe, n.m. A jack-'o-lantern, will-of-the-wisp. Barf, n.f. See Hyún. -parni. To fall, of snow. Bargat, n.f. (H. barakat.) Prosperity, a blessing. Bárge, n.m. Side, part. pl. -o. Barhó, n.m. A male spirit which causes sickness (Chambá). Bári, n.f. A turn. Bárí-khe, adv. For the whole life. Barkáwnu, v.t. re. To beat, to hit, to strike; f. -i, pl. -é. Bárké, n.m. A guest, a person entitled to hospitality. Barmá, n.m. (H.) A gimlet. Bárne, n.f. A kind of fern. Baró, n.m. Rations, provisions.

Baró, barú, n.m. Rations.

Báró, ad. 12; -wáň, 12th.

Barto, n.m. A muâfî, or revenue-free grant (Mandi).

Barto-jeolà, n.m. A free grant for service (Mandi).

Bárú, n.m. The name of a tune (rág) called barwá.

Bárwé, n.m. pl. Cotton seed.

Bas, n.m. (S. Vasha.) Control.

Básná, n.f. (S. Vásaná.) Fragrance, sweet smell.

Basát, n.f. A herd or a flock. (Also Basatri.)

Basérá, n.m. A house or home.

Bashandar, n.f. (S. Vaishwanara.) Fire.

Báshá, n.m. A small kind of hawk called bahrí in the plains.

Bás or báss, n.m. See Bashulá.

Basetri, n.f. Cattle, quadrupeds.

Bá'sh, n.f. A smell.

Basháh, n.m. (S. Vishwása.) Trust, faith, confidence.

Bashákh, n.m. (S. Vaishákha.) The first month of the Hindú year, corresponding to April.

Báshaná, n.f. A wish, desire, inclination (S. Vásaná).

Bäsháň-wáň, n.m. A kind of swelling, a disease.

Bäshá'r, n.m. turmeric. See Bihan also.

Bäsharam, ad. (H. besharm.) Shameless. (Alike in all genders and numbers.)

Bashatri, n.f. Trouble, hardship, difficulty, distress.

Bash-kál, n.m. (S. Varshákála.) The monsoon, the rainy season.

Báshmati, n.f. One of the best kinds of rice.

Báshná, n.f. See Báshaná.

Bashnu, n.m. A tenant. v.i. re. (1) To settle, to live, to lodge. (2) To rain.

Báshnu, v.i. re. To warble.

Bäshtálá, n.m. The oracle delivered by the diwáň of a deity.

Bäshtáng, n.m. See Bishtáng.

Bashúlá, n.m. An adze.

Bashúlnu, v.t. re. (1) To realize. (2) To settle, to restore order; f. -í, pl. -é.

Basnu, v.i. re. (See Bashnu).

Báss, n.f. (1) Smell, scent, fragrance. (2) An adze.

Bast, n.f. (S. Vastu.) A thing.

Bást, n.m. (S. Vástu, the site of a habitation.) A stone brick deposited in the foundation of a house and worshipped, and called chakka or bástu.

Bástá or -u, adj. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. (1) Uncultivated. (2) n. Fallow.

Bastr, n.m. (S. Vastra.) Cloth, dress, clothing. Bastu, n.m. (S. Vastu.) The deity of a house, the house deity. (Also bástu purush).

Basulnu, v.t. re. (1) To set right. (2) To realise; f. -i, pl. -e. Bát, n.f. (S. Vártà.) A word, a thing, a matter. -láni, v.t. re. To converse.

Bá't or bátth, n.f. A path, way, road. -láni, v.i. re. To make a way. handni, v.i. re. To travel.

Batairá, n.m. A stone vessel maker, one who works in stone.

Batálí, ad. 42; -wáň, 42nd.

Batér, n.m. (H.) A partridge.

Batetú, n.m. The little son of a Bráhman.

Bathánu, v.t. re. To seat, to allow to sit down.

Batholi, n.f. Bread made of pot-herb flour.

Báthú, n.m. (S. Vástuka.) The pot-herb seed or plant; a kind of vegetable.

Batná, n.m. A substance used for rubbing the pair before a

marriage.

Báti, n.t. (1) A small vessel of brass. (2) A weight of two sers. (3) A wick.

Bátnu, v.t. re. To knead; f. -í, pl. é. (Also bátná).

Battí, ad. 32; -wáň, 32nd.

Batuwá, n.m. (H.) A small purse.

Batáwnu, v.t. re. To let one know, -f. i, pl. -é. Batáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to knead.

Bátri, n.f. A short cut. Lit. a little path.

Báú, n.m. Swimming, the act of swimming. -dene, v.i. ir. To swim.

Baunsu, n.m. A kind of loaf made with fat, and cooked in steam (used in Balsan and Púnar).

Báwáň, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Left. (S. váma.)

Báwná, n.m. See Báoná.

Bawne, n.f. A kind of plant which bears blue flowers.

Báwrí, n.f. See Bàorì.

Báy, n.f. wind (or flatulence).

Bayáli, ad. 42; -wáň, 42nd.

Bdár, n.m. A kinsman: kith or kin. -nu, v.i. re. To act like a kinsman.

Bdhaiwni, v.t. re. To extinguish.

Bébi, n.f. Sister. The vowel i is changed into e in the vocative case as: Bebé tú kiňdi cháli? "O sister, where are you going to?"

Bedan, n.f. (S. Vedaná.) An ache, a pain.

Bedi, n.f. (S. Vedi.) The ground on which is lighted the sacrificial fire at weddings or other religious ceremonies.

Bední, n.f. A pain.

Bednu, v.t. re. To call, to invite, to send for: f. -i, pl. -é.

Beduwnu, v.i. re. To be spoken, to be called.

Begé, adj. m. or adv. Too much.

Begrá or -u, adj. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Very much, too much, excessive.

Beí, n.f. (S. Vipádiká.) A kibe. A sore or blister on the foot.

Bejkhré, n.m. pl. Ugly or unclean feet.

Be'ká or -h, adj. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Empty, or empty-handed.

Be'l. n.m. (S. Vilwa.) The tree, or its fruit, called bel. (Aegle marmelos.)

Beorá, n.m. (S. Vyavahára.) A matter, a subject.

Beorá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. (1) Reversed, upset, contrary.
(2) Left.

Be'r, n.f. Delay.

Bér, -o, pl. A village, a house or home.

Berá, n.m. A palace, especially the female apartments in a chief's palace; pl. -ć.

Berí, n.f. (1) Iron fetters. (2) A boat.

Beri, n.f. See bári.

Besó, n.m. See Majnú.

Betá, n.m. (H.) A son. f.-i. A girl or daughter; pl.-é. Sons.

Bethú, n.m. A low-caste farmer who works under a zamîndár.

Bethnu, v.i. re. (H. baithná.) To sit down.

Bglaiwnu, v.t. re. To clear off; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bhábar, n.m. The scorpion plant, from which jute is obtained.

Bhábi, n.f. Brother's wife. Also bháoj.

Bhádar, ad. m. (H. bahádur.) Gallant, brave.

Bhádo, n.m. (S. Bhádrapada.) The 5th month of the Hindw year, corresponding to August. (Also bhajjo.)

Bhádú, n.m. (H. bhaddú.) A white-metal ve-sel used for cooking pulse.

Bháer, n.m. Brother. f. -1, Sister; m. -4, A polite term of address to anyone.

Bhá'g, n.m. (S. Bhágya.) Luck, fate, fortune.

Bhág-khóuwane, v.i. re. To be ill-fated, to be unlucky.

Bhágnu, v.i. re. To run away, to escape.

Bhahattar, ad. 72.

Bhái, n.m. (H. bháí.) (S. bhrátri.) A brother.

Bhainchal, n.m. (S. Bhumichalana.) An earthquake.

Bhains, n.f. (H.) (S. Mahishi.) A buffalo; m. -á, pl. -é. Also mainsh.

Bhaish, n.m. (S. Abhyása.) Practice.

Bhaishnu, v.i. re. To practise; f. i, pl. é.

Bháithú, n.m. An adopted brother. f -an. An adopted sister.

Bhajjo, n.m. See Bhádo. -we, adv. In August.

Bhajnu, v.t. re. (H. bhajná.) To preserve, to keep in memory.

Bhájnu, v.t. re. To deny, to disagree, to refuse; f.-i, pl.-é.

Bháji, n.f. Vegetable.

Bhalá, or -u, ad. m. Good; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bhálá, n.m. (H.) A spear; pl. é.

Bhäláwá, n.m. (H. bhiláwá.) A medicinal tree, or fruit.

Bhalk, n.f. Morning, daybreak. -é. At daybreak.

Bhallá, n.m. A kind of cake, made of pulse flower; pl. -é.

Bhallí, n.f. A kind of food.

Bhalnu, v.i. re. To recover from illness, to be restored to health.

Bhálnu, v.t. re. To keep in sight, to observe, to witness.

Bhálu, n.m. One who keeps anything in sight.

Bhálú, n.m. (See Banáí.)

Bhá'n, n.m. Small coins.

Bhándá or -u, n.m. pl. -é. A brass, copper or iron vessel.

Bhánde-bábar-honi, v.i. ir. To be in menses.

Bhándnu, v.t. re. To call ill names, to abuse; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bhánkhri, n.f. Mocking bird.

Bhán-nu, v.t. re. To break; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bhánji, n.f. Injury. -mární, v.i. re. To injure.

Bhánju or -á, n.m. sister's son; nephew. f. -i. Sister's daughter; niece; pl. -é.

Bháng, n.f. The hemp plant, or leaves, or smoking hemp.

Bhangolu, n.m. pl. Hemp-seed.

Bhānói, n.m. (H. bahnoi.) Sister's husband.

Bháoi, n./. See Bhábi.

Bhar, n.m. A seed measure upon which was founded the ancient unit of land (Kullu).

Bhárá, n.m. (1) Hire, rent. (2) To give some corn to a calfless cow or buffalo at milking.

Bhárá, n.m. (S. Bhára = weight.) A load, luggage; pl. -é.

Bhará or -u, adj. m.; f. í, pl. -é. Full, filled up.

Bhárá, n.m. Fare, rent. -dená, v.i. ir. To pay the fare.

Bhárí, ad. (H.) Heavy.

Bharan, n.m. A tax levied at two annas per rupee (Kullu).

Bharnu, v.t. re. (1) To pay. (2) To fill up.

Bhart, n.m. A kind of pulse, flat and black in colour.

Bharúwanu, v.i. re. To be filled; f.-i, pl.-é.

Bhásh or bhákh, n.f. (S. Bháshá.) Language, a dialect. Pähári bháshbi jánai.? 'Do you know the Pahári language?' Bhash, n.m. The lungs.

Bhasmá, n.m. (S. bhasman.) Ashes.

Bhát, n.m. (S. Bhatta.) A term for a Bráhman.

Bhá't, n m. (S. Bhakta) Boiled rice.

Bhatangru, n.m. one who manages corvée or begár (Kullu).

Bháti, n.f. A ceremony at which Bráhmans are fed.

Bhátli, n./. A feast given to all the kith and kin in order to regain one's caste; one's being out of caste by doing something wrong.

Bhatkanu, v.i. re. To stray, to wander; /. -i, pl. -é.

Bhatte, n.m. pl. (H. bhatta.) Brinjals.

Bhatu, n.m. A Brahman's son whose duty it is to serve a chief at the time of worship.

Bháú, n.m. A chief's son. A polite term used in addressing any boy of good birth.

Bhaun, n.m. (S. Bhavana.) A temple.

Bhaun, n.m. A thought, a supposition. Mere bhaun sé ní áumá, "I suppose he won't come."

Bháw, n.m. (H. bháw.) A rate.

Bhdár, n.m. A granary, a store-house.

Bhdárí, n m. One in charge of granary, a store-keeper.

Bhéd, n.m. f. -i, pl. -o. A sheep.

Bhékhal, n.m. A kind of plant with sharp thorns; pl. -é.

Bhét, n.m. (H.) A secret.

Bhét, n.f. (1) A present offered to a deity. (2) An offering. (3) A benevolence made in cash by officials and by landholders in land to the Rana at the Diwáli festival (Kuthár). (4) An offering made on appointment to office by a mahr (Bilâspur).

Bhetá (see the preceding). A present made to a deity or ruler, -deni or charni, v.i. ir. and re. To give or offer a

present.

Bhetnu, v.t. re. To visit, to meet, to call on; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bhétu, n.m. (H.) One who knows secrets. -karná, v.t. ir. To introduce, to acquaint.

Bhijnu, v.i. re. To be wet; f.-i, pl.-é.

Bhikh, n./. (S. Bhikshá.) Alms. -deni v.i. ir. To give alms.

Bhirnu, v.t. re. To fight, to struggle.

Bhit, n. f. (S. Bhitti.) A wall.

Bhithká or -u. ad. m f. -í, pl. -é. Inside, in.

Bhithlá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i., pl. -é. Of the inside, inner.

Bhlaithá, n.m. The main beam of a roof.

Bhlekhá, n.m. (H. bhulkálekhá.) A mistake, an oversight.

Bhofar, n.m. Shoulder, pl. -o.

Bhog, n.m. (S.) An offer, -láná; v.i. re. To offer cooked food to a deity.

Bhoglu, n.m. See Bihan.

Bhó'j, n.m. (1) A feast. (2) Birch. -ru, n.m. Picnic. (3) -pattar, n.m. Birch-bark.

Bholá or -u, adj. m. f. i, pl. -é. Simple-minded.

Bhónr or -á, n.m. (S. bhramara.) A black bee; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bhónru, n.m. A song, a couplet: poetry, such as:-

Kúje ru fulrú, bhoňro ru bhuňchu,

Bhuju ní jámdú ní huňdú mano ru suňchú.

"The wild white rose is sucked by a black bee, Roasted grain never grows, nor is a desired object gained."

Síti háňdolí harno, bikro de moro,

Mánu dekhe mukhte, terá latká horo.

"Deer will walk, and peafowl too,

I've seen a good many men, but your gait is of another kind."

Bhónthá or -i, n. A sept of Kanets in Kaimli pargana and elsewhere in these hills; pl. -é.

Bhoshé, n.m. pl. Roasted green wheat or gram.

Bhrungnu, v.i. re. To roar like a panther.

Bhryunsh, n.f. pl. -o. Eyebrows.

Bhú, n.m. (H. bhus.) Fodder.

Bhubhal, n.m. A fire of hot ashes to fry potatoes in.

Bhubri, n.f. Mouth.

Bhuin, n.f. (S. Bhumi.) Earth, land. -su, adj. A one-storeved house.

Bhujnu, v.t. re. To roast, to fry; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bhukh, n.f. (S. Bubhukshá.) Hunger, appetite.

Bhukhie-raunu, v.i. ir. To remain hungry. Bhúl, n.f. (H.) A mistake, forgetfulness.

Bhulká, n.m. Vegetables. -chánnu, v.i. re. To cook vegetables.

Bhulnu, v.t. re. To forget; -f. i, pl. -é.

Bhuňchu, ad. Sucked, or licked.

Bhundu, n.m. A fool, an ignorant man.

Bhú-re-parál, ad. Good for nothing.

Bhyaini, n.f. Daybreak.

Bhyáň-ni, n.f. Daybreak. -e. At daybreak.

Bhyánsär, n.f. Morning, dawn. -i, adv. This morning.

Bhyáss, n.m. (S. Abhyása.) Practice, exercise.

Bhyásuwnu, v.i. re. To be accustomed, to be in practice; f.-i, pl. -é.

Bhyóunu, v.t. re. To make or cause to be wet; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bí, n.f. The verandah of a house. (Also tóng.)

Bí, ad. (S. Vinshati.) 20; -wáň, 20th.

Bi, adv. Also, too. Sé bi áwnú thiá. "He too was to come."

Bi, adv. (1) Also, even. Proverb:-

Také rí bi, "Of six pies, Chajau ri bi. Yet beautiful."

(2) adv. As well as.

Biáh, n.m. See Byá or Byáh.

Bich, n.f. A crack. adj. Middle. n. Centre.

Bíchá-bichí, adv. Through or by the middle.

Bidáná, n.m. Quinces

Bidhni, v.i. re. To be extinguished.

Bidhnu, v.i. re To be extinguished.

Bigaí, n.f. A tax levied per bíghá (Kuthár).

Bighé, adv. In the fields.

Bihan, n.m. Coriandrum sativum. (Also bäshúr.)

Bij, n.m. (S. Vija). (1) Seeds. (2) (S. vajra.) Thunderbolt. -galnu, v.i. re. To be no more.

Bijaurí, n.f. (S. Víjapúra.) A kind of citron.

Bijandri, n.f. A furrow left unsown in a field. Bijli, n.f. (S. Vidyut). Lightning.

Bijnu, v.t. re. To sow; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bikar, bikr, n.f. The lower part of a field.

Bikh, n.m. (S. Visha.) (1) Poison. (2) -ru or -rá, ad m.; f. -i. pl. -e. Difficult, dangerous (way).

Bikh, n.f. A step, a footstep. dení, v.i. ir. To tread, to walk. Bil, n.f. A hole, chasm, a crack. -parni, v.i. re. To crack -patri, n.f. Leaves of the bel tree.

Bilkhnu, v.t. re. To scream, to cry.

Biná-bajau-rí, ad. f. Without wages.

Binávak, n.m. (S. Vinávaka.) The deity Ganesh.

Biňchi, n.t. A plant called gulmanhdi in Hindî.

Binchu, n.m. (S. Vrishchika, H. bichchhu.) A scorpion.

Bíňd, n.m. A handle of a sickle or a hoe. -láná, v.i. re. To fix a handle.

Bindá, n.m. A truss (of hay). Bindku.

Biňdá, n.m.; pl. -é. A big grass bundle; f. -í. A small grassbundle. (Also $pul\acute{u}$ and $pul\acute{t}$.)

Bindlu-tárá, n.m. The morning star.

Bingu. See Bángá.

Bíni, ad. (H. biná.) Without.

Bir, n.m. (S. Vira.) (1) A hero. (2) The deity Hanumân or Bhairab. (Also used in compounds, e.g., Banbír, Lánkrábír.) Biri, n.f. A green twig used for brushing the teeth. láni, v.i. ir.

To brush the teeth.

Birié, n. A polite term used in addressing a maiden.

Bishi, n.f. (S. Vinshati.) A score, 20.

Bishká or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Empty. -háthe, adv. Empty-handed; f. -i, pl. é.

Bish-táng, n.f. (1) The remuneration of a headman at the rate of 6 pies per rupee of land revenue (Kuthár). (2) A present to an officer in cash: (all the Simla Hill States). -deni, v.i. ir. To give a present. (3) A bribe (also kó'r.)

Bishú, n.m. (S. Vishuva.) (1) The moment of the sun's reaching Aries. (2) A song sung by low-caste people in April.

Biu, ad. m. Good. -honu, v.i. ir. To be convalescent.

Biyá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl -é. Good. adv. Quite well.

Biyć-re-mundé, ad. pl. Disciples of wise men.

Bláj, n.m. (S. Valirája, the King Vali.) A night fair. (Also barláj or brláj.)

Blá'k or bülák, n.m. A nose-ring.

Blair, n.m. A low caste (often called 'mate'). (Also halmandi.)

Bláwlá, n.m. Condolence. -dená, v.t. ir. To condole.

Blél, n.f. Evening, eve.

Bliyá, m. O my; f. -é.

Boá, n.m. Flight.

Bobó, n.f. (1) A sister or adopted sister. (2) A very polite term used in addressing a woman.

Bodrí, n.m. A kind of disease, chicken-pox. -nikalni, v.t. re.

To suffer from chicken-pox.

Boé, v.p.p. Passed away.

Bohit, ad. m. (H. bahut.) Much, abundant.

Bohu, n.f. (S. Vadhú.) Daughter-in-law.

Bojhá, n.m. (H. bojh.) A load.

Bo'k-bidyá, n.f. Jesting, mocking.

Boki, ad. m. and f. Talkative.

Boknu, v.t. re. To jest, to mock; f. -1, pl. -é.

Bó'l, n.m. A high wooded place.

Bo'l, n.m. (1) A speech, a saying. (2) An oral agreement whereby one's daughter is bethrothed to a boy; in default the sum of Rs. 20 is paid as damages.

Bol, n.m. (1) A speech. (2) The term used for paying Rs. 20

to validate a betrothal.

Bolnu, v.t. re. To speak; f. -1, pl. -é.

Boň, n.f. See Báorí.

Bón, n.m. See Ban.

Boň-nu, v.i. re. To flow.

Bonu, v.t. re. See Bijnu.

Bo'tí, n.f. See Bohu.

Botí or botiyá, n.m.; f. -an. A cook.

Boti, n.f. A bit of flesh. -boti-karni, v.i. ir. To cut in pieces.

Bóu, n.f. (H. bahú, S. Badhú.) Daughter-in-law.

Bóúmeň, v. pl. We will, or should, sow.

Bownu, v.i. re. To roll down, to flow; f. -i, pl. -é.

Bpári, n.m. (H. byápárí.) A trader, a merchant.

Bra, n.m. A weight equal to 4 thákris or 6 sers. The area sown with one árhá is reckoned equal to a bigha (Jubbal.).

Brágá, n.f. The wife of a bairagí.

Brágar, n.m. Ear-rings.

Brágí, n.m. Bairágí, a Vaishnava.

Brágan, n.f. A lioness or tigress.

Brágg, n.m.; f. -an (S. Vyághra.) A leopard or panther. -tu. A leopard cub.

Brail, n.f. (S. Vidala.) A cat. (Also braili) Dim. -tú or -tí. A kitten.

Bráss, n.m. The rhododendron.

Brát, n.f. (1) Dunning. (2) (H. bárát.) A wedding procession.

Bráti-bethnu, v.i. re. To dun. (Also brát-láni.)

Bresht, n.m. (S. Vrihaspati.) Thursday.

Bthith, n.m. Flour of pot-herb grain.

Btholi, n.f. Bread made of pot-herb grain.

Buárá or bwárá, n.m. A helper; one who helps a fellow villager and gets food, but no cash, in return; pl. Buáre or bwáre -láne, v.i. re. To engage helpers. -dewnu, v.i. re. To go to help.

Búbá, n.m. The husband of one's father's sister. f. -f, Father's sister, pl. -é.

Bubér-bhái, n.m. Father's sister's son.

Budá, n.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. A bar.

Buddh, n.m. (S. Budha.) (1) Wednesday. (2) Wisdom.

Bug, n.m. A cover, especially for a gun, a pillow or bedding.

Bugchá or -u, n.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. A bundle.

Buggl, n.f. Wrapping up the body in a sheet; -pani, v.i. re.
To wrap up one's body in a sheet.

Bujhnu, v.t. re. (H. bújhná.) To understand, to know; . /-i, pl. -é. Bujhnwálá, n.m.; f.-i, pl.-é. One who understands or knows. Bülák, n.m. See Blá'k.

Bulánu, v.t. re. (H. buláná.) To call, to invite.

Buniá, ad. 52. Bun-nu, v.t. re. (H. bunná.) To weave; f. -i, pl. -é.

Burá or -u, adj. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Bad, wicked, not good.

Burá-bhájaná, v.i. re. To cease unhappiness.
Burá-lágná, v.i. re. To be unhappy. -mánná, v.i. re. To be displeased.

Burí-ghálni, v.t. re. To harass, to put to trouble, to plague.

Buri-honi, v.i. ir. To be in trouble.

Burí-lágni, v.i. re. To pine in love, to feel unpleasant.

Bwá'l, n.m. (H. ubál, S. Udgára.) (1) Overflowing. (2) Heat.

Bwál-jánu or dewnu, v.i. re. To overflow. Bwálnu, v.t. re. (H. ubalná.) To boil.

Bwárá, n.m., pl. -e. See Buárá.

Byá, n.m. (S. Viváha.) Marriage. (Also byáh. -áhundá, adj. m.; f. i, hundi; pl. -éhunde. Married.

Byaij, n.m. (H. byáj.) Interest.

Byáli, n.j. Dinner. -chánni, v.i. re. To cook the dinner. -é, adv. In the evening. Byále re pahre áyá Ludro—'Shib came in the evening.'

Byálke-bakté, adv. In the evening time.

Byálkri or byálki, n.f. The evening.

Byáli, n.t. Supper. Byálti, n./. Evening.

Byáňhdá, n.m. A tax levied at a chief's wedding and on his children's marriages. (Also Byáol or Byáoli.)

Byáol or byáoli, n./. Šee Byáňhdá.

Byáshi, ad. 82; -wáň, 82nd.

Byó'l, n.m. A kind of tree, the leaves of which are given to cattle as fodder.

Byórá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. \acute{e} ; (1) Reversed, upset. (2) n.m. Detailed account. (3) ad. contrary, left (beorá).

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Chá'b, n.m. A food made of rice and sugar.

Chabhoknu, v.t. re. To dip.

Chábnu, v.t. re. To chew; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chäbutra, n.m. A raised bank or terrace, open or covered.

Chäbutrá-wazîr or Shrí-wazîr, n.m. The prime-minister, the chief minister. (The former form was used in Kullû and the latter in Bashahr.)

Cháchá, n.m. Uncle. f.-i, Aunt; pl.-é.

Chachénu, v.i. re. To ory or scream; f.-i, pl.-é.

Chádar, n.m. A sheet of cloth.

Chádr, n.f. A scarf. (H. chaddar.)

Cháer, n.f. See Chár.

Chaetu or chaethu or -á. ad. m.; f -í, pl. -é. (1) Desirable. (2) Easy.

Chaftá or -u. ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Thin, straight.

Chagarnu, v.t. re. See Chagrnu.

Chagrnu or chagarnu, v.t. re. To know, to come to know, to feel; f. -1, pl. -é.

Cháh, n.f. (1) Desire. (2) Tea. -nu, v.t. re. To wish.

Chain, n.f. (P.) Peace, tranquillity. -parni, v.i. re. To be in rest. Chair, n.m. The true or Golden Pheasant.

Chajará or -u., ad. m.; f. -i, pl. é. Good, fine.

Chá'k, n.m. (1) An ornament. (2) A miller's wheel.

Cháká, n.m. Service in cantonments. (Obs., Kullû.)

Chákar, n.m. (H). A servant; f.-i. Service.

Chakchuňjrí, n./. A squirrel.

Cháké, n.m. pl. Roofing slates; -á, sing.

Chake-bethnu, v.t. re. To realize a fine by sitting at one's door. Chakhauni, n.f. A taste.

Chákhnu, v.t. re. (H. chakhnú.) To taste.

Chákí, n.f. (H. chakkí.) A handmill.

Chakká, n.m. See Bast.

Chakkar, n.m. (H.) Circle, round. -lánu, or -denu, or -bahnu; v.i. re. To turn round.

Chákļá or -u, n.m.; f. -i, pl. -é. A round stone.

Chakleot, n.f. The blackbird (chaklyot).

Chaknu, v.t. re. To carry, to lift up; f. -i, pl. -c.

Chakó'r, n.m. See Chákru.

Chákri, n.f. Service. -karni, v.t. ir. To serve.

Chákru, n.m. The chikor (also chakór). Chákú, n.m. (H. chakkú.) A knife.

Chá'l, n.f. (H.) (1) Gait. (2) A custom.

Chálá, n.m. Shaking. -honá, v.i. ir. To be shaken.

Chaláná-dená, v.i. ir. To go on, to proceed. Chalhér, n.m. Breakfast time. (Also chalhár.)

Cháli-jánu, v.i. ir. To go on. -ján-nu, v.i. re. To know how to walk.

Chálni, n.m. See Pälgárí. (Basháhr.)

Chálnu, v.i. re. (H. chalná.) To walk, to go on, to proceed; j.i., pl.-é.

Chamár, n.m. (H.) (S. Charmakára.) /. -i. A shoemaker.

Chamáshá, n.m. (S. Cháturmásya.) The monsoon, the rainy season, wet weather.

Chámbá, n.m. (1) Copper. (2) A fragrant yellow flower.

Chámbá, n.m. (S. Champaka.) A tree bearing a fragrant yellow flower (Michelia champaca). Proverb:—Chámbé múlé bhekhlai júmí: "Under a fragrant flower tree there grew a thorny plant." (Used of the son of a well-to-do man who has none of his father's qualities.)

Cham-chamát, n.m. (1) Shining or blazing. (2) Flashing. Cham-gádar, n.m. (H. changidar.) A bat. Chamkáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to shine; f. -i, pl. -é. Chamknu, v.i. re. (1) To shine. (2) To flash. (3) To be in full power; f. -i, pl. -é. Champkali, n.f. An ornament worn by women on the neck. (It is made either of gold or of silver.) Chámri, n.f. The skin. -twárni, v.i. re. To whip. Chaná'l, n.m. A low caste, e.g., a shoe-maker. Chá'n-chak, ad. Vain, in vain, without reason. Chánd, n.m. (S. Chandra, P. chánd.) The moon. Chandâl, n.m. (S. Chándála, sweeper.) A wicked man. Chandól, n.m. A swing made of wood, to seat four. Chandrá, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Wicked, bad. Chángá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í., pl.-é. Good, fine. (H. changá.) Changar, n.m. The upper storey of a house. Chánhnu, v.t. ir. To desire, to wish; f.-i, pl.-é. Chani, n.t. A bit, a very small part. Mádu mángo ádhu, Rani ná deo chani. "Mádu wants the half, Rani will not give a bit.'' Cháňknu, v.t. re. See Chábnu. Chánná, n.m. The kernel of a fruit; pl. -é. Chán-nu, v.t. re. (1) To make. (2) To cook; f. -i, pl. -é. Chantá'l, ad. See chandál. Chá'nu, v.t. re. (H. cháhna.) To want, to wish, to desire. f. -i, pl. é. Cháo, n.m. See Cháw. Chápnu, v.t. re. (See Chábnu.) To chew. -é-jogu, -á, ad. m.; l.-i, pl. é. Fit to chew. Chá'r, ad. (H.) Four. Chauthá, m.; f. -í, pl. -é, fourth. Chár, n (H. áchár.) A kind of sauce. Charan, n.m. pl. (S. Charana.) Feet. Charán, n.m. Grazing ground. Chár-deni, v.i. ir. To drive game. Charáwnu, v.t. re. To graze; f. -i, pl. -é. Charhai, n.f. (1) An ascent. (2) An invasion. Charling, v.t. re. (1) To climb up. (2) To mount, to ride; f. -i, pl. -é. Charj. n.m. (S. Ashcharya.) Wonder, surprise. Chárj, n.m. (S. Achárya.) A Krishna Brahman, who accepts the death-bed gifts. (harkhá, n.m. (H.) Spinning wheel. -kátná, v.i. re. To spin. Charnu, v.i. re. (H. charná.) To graze; f. -1. Chaská, n.m. Fondness, eagerness. -parná, v.i. re. To be fond. Chatar, ad. (S. Chatura.) Clever, wise, active. Chatiknu, v.i. re. To crack; f. -i, pl. -é. Chátnu, v.t. re. (H. chatná.) To lick; f. -í, pl. -é.

Chatráí, n.f. (S. Cháturí.) Cleverness, wisdom.

Chaubi, ad. 24; -wáň, 24th.

Chaudash, n.f. (S. Chaturdashi.) The fourteenth day of the bright or dark half of a month.

Chaun, ad. Three; chiú, chijá, or chiyá; f.-i, pl.-é.; third. Chaunlá, n.m.; f.-i, pl. é. A wild beast with a white tail.

Chaunr, n.m. (S. Chámara.) A chowri, the tail of the yák used to whisk off flies, etc.; also as an emblem or insigne of princely rank.

Chaurá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. (H.) Wide, broad.

Chaurá, n.m. (1) A terrace, a courtyard. f. -i. (2) A yák's tail.

Chauth, n.f. (S. Chaturthi.) The fourth day of the bright or dark half of a month.

Chau'-thi, n.f. A small hole near the hearth of a cook-room in which salt and red pepper are put.

Cháw, n.m. Pleasure, ambition. (Also Cháo.) -hoṇá, v.i. ir.
To be ambitious.

Chawanu, v.i. re. To absorb; f.-i, pl.-é.

Chéfar, n.m. A long shelf or plank to keep things on. (Syn. Párchh.)

Chennu, n.m. A pole with two horns. Chennu, n.m. The edible mushroom.

Chelá, n.m.; f. -i, pl. -é. A disciple, a scholar.

Chele, n.m. See Diwáň, Diňwáň.

Ché'li, n.f. (1) Breakfast. (2) The second morning meal. -chánni, v.i. re. To prepare breakfast.

Chéol, chéwl n.m. A beam of timber.

Chér, n.m. See Chair.

Cherá, n.m. A wooden bolt.

Chét or chéch, n.m. (S. Chaitra.) The 12th month of the Hindús, corresponding to March.

Chetá, n.m. (1) Memory. (2) Treatment. -chaugshí, n.f. Careful treatment.

Chethá-chethi, n.f. Teasing, bothering.

Chethá-hundá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Spoiled.

Chetá-rákhná, v.t. re. To take care of. [pl. -é.

Chethnu, v.t. re. To spoil, to bother, to render useless; f. -i, Chetnu, v.t. re. (1) To feel. (2) i. To be cautious; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chettá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -e. Narrow. (Also chyettá.)

Chetuwanu, v.t. re. To recollect, to recall to memory; j. -i, pl. -é. Cheuň, n.m. A kind of edible toadstool, morel. Also chyáúň.

Chéwäl, n.m. A beam, of timber. (Also dásá.) [curd

Chhá, n.f. Watery curd. -dhun-ni or chholni, v.i. re. To churn Chhábrá or -u, n.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. A large wide basket of bamboo, to put bread in.

Chhabtu, n.m. A grain measure, equal to 2 sers.

Chháchhá, n.m. pl. -é. A minute kind of gnat of yellow colour. It is found in Shungrí, Khadrálá, etc., in the Basháhr territory. When it bites a prick is felt and the pain increases and lasts for six months.

Chhádnu, v.t. re. To leave; f.-í, pl.-é.

Chháetu or -a, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. See Cháetu.

Chhái, n.f. See Astu.

Chhain, n.f. (S. Chhaya.) Shade, shadow. -parni, v.i. re. To become shady.

Chháká, n.m. A day's labour paid with 2 sers of grain and a meal (Bilâspur).

Chhakar-dádá, n.m. The great-great-grandfather.

Chhakku, n.m. A small basket.

Chhaknu, v.t. re. To eat; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chhal, n.m. Fright, terror (from an evil spirit). -chhiddar, n.m. A trick, pretension.

Chhá'l, n.f. A wave. Nháne ri-. Bathing.

Chhálá, n.m. Ring (of finger.) (Also chhallá.)

Chhäláká, n.m. A long wave; pl. -é.

Chhäláng, n.f. A skip, or jump.

Chhallá, n.m. A ring. (Also chháp.)

Chhalli, n.f. Indian corn. (Also chhalli.) Chhalnu or chhalwnu, v.i. re. To be frightened or terrified by an evil spirit.

Chhálnu, v.t. re. To wash, to clean. f.-i. A sieve; pl.-é.

Chhálu, n.m. A blister.

Chhálnt, ad. Selected, the best (alike in all genders and numbers).

Chhämáí, n.f. Half-yearly. -mángni, v.i. re. To ask for grain at each harvest.

Chhámbar, n.m. A kind of plant. adj. m.f. -i, pl. -é. Spot-

Chhamchhamát, n.m. The tinkle of metal ornaments.

Chhadmó, n.m. (S. Chhadma.) Deceit.

('hhádnu, v.t. re. To release, to leave; f.-i, pl.-e.

('hhá'n, n./. A leafy roof, a cattleshed.

Chhánde, n.m. Entertaining. -rákhņu, v.t. re. To enter-Chhánde kanie rákhúň. "What am I to entertain tain. with?"

Chhándé, ad. Entertaining.

Chhángá or -w, ad. m.; f. -í. pl. -é. One who has six fingers or toes.

Chhänite, ad. By chance.

Chhán-nu, v.t. re. To shift; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chhántnu, v.t. re. (1) To select. (2) To cut, to lop. Chhánu, v.t. re. To roof; f. -i, pl. -é. (Also chháwnu.)

Chháp, n.f. (1) A ring (of a finger). (2) A seal.

Chhápar, n.m. A roof; f. i. A small roof. pl. Chhápro. Chhapáwnu, v.t. re. (H. chhipáná.) To hide; f. -í, pl. é.

Chhapká, n.m. A sudden blow or stroke.

Chhapnu, v.i. re. (1) To set; f. -i, pl. -é. (2) To hide. Chhápnu, v.t. re. (H. chhápní.) To print, to impress.

Chhá'r, n.f. Ashes. See Bhasmá.

Chhar, n.f. A basket to keep a chief's robes in.

Chharáwnu, v.t. re. To take back, to take away; f. -1. pl. -é.

Chhari, n.f. A gold or silver mounted pole kept by a gatekeeper.

Chhariyá, n.m. A gate-keeper of a chief's palace.

Chharnu, v.t. re. To pound, to beat in a pestle; f. -i, pl. -é. Chhárnu, v.t. re. To set free, to release, to leave; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chharownu, v.t. re. To take by force; f.-i, pl.-é.

Chhatar, n.m. (S. Chhatra.) A deity's silver umbrella; f. -i. An umbrella, a canopy.

Chháti, n.f. A stick.

Chhath, n.f. (S. Shashti.) The sixth day of the bright or dark half of a month. Also a ceremony observed on the sixth day after the birth of a son, when Shashti Devi is worshipped and a grand feast is given to all.

Chháti, n.f. A small stick.

Chhattá, n.m. (S. Chatra.) An umbrella; /.-i. A small umbrella; pl. -c.

Chhau, ad. (H. chhah.) 6; -wáň; m.f. -wíň; pl. -weň, 6th.

Chhaub, n.f. An agricultural implement (used in Basháhr).

Chhautu, n.m. A kind of implement to cut leaves and branches for cattle bedding. It is like a small hatchet.

Chháwnu, v.t. re. See Chhánu.

Chhdawnu, v.t. re. (1) To cause or allow to release or leave; f.-1, (2) To take off.

Chhé, ad. See chhau.

Chhechar, n.m. (S. shat, six, and upachara, a gift.) A ceremony observed at weddings in Chambá and the Simla Hill States, when the bridegroom reaches the bride's house with the wedding procession; at the gate the bride's father gives him (1) water to wash his feet, (2) a tilak of sandal, (3) a garland, (4) a robe, (5) a betelnut, and (6) an orna ment, i.e., a gold ring.

Chhéi, n.f. A store of wood or fuel. -lání, v. To store fuel.

Chhejá or -w, n.m.; f. -i, pl. -é. A thin stick.

Chhé'k, n.m. A tearing. -nu, v.t. re. (1) To tear. (2) To put out of caste.

Chhekan, n.m. A tear, separating.

Chheknu, v.t. re. (1) To tear, to break. (2) To put out of caste. To excommunicate.

Chhekuwanu, v.i. re. To be torn or separated.

Chhelá or -u, n.m.; f. -i, pl. -i. A kid.

Chheli, n.f. A she-kid.

Chheltu, n.m; f.-i, pl.-é. A kid. Chhéo, chhéw, n.m. End. -honá; v.i. ir. To be no more.

Chhéori, n.f. (1) A woman. (2) A wife (also chhewri).

Chhé'r, n.f. (1) War, a battle. (2) Sound, u, n.m. One who stirs.

Chholnu, v.t. re. (1) To churn. (2) To dissolve; f. -i, pl. -é. Chhó't, n. f. Defilement, pollutedness. Chhotá, or -u, ad. m.; /. -i, pl. -é. Small, short. -jáná, v.i. ir. To fall short: f. -i. pl. -é. Chhó'tá or -u, n.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. A son, boy or lad. Chhoti, n.f. Urine. Chhoti-karni, v.i. re. To make water (also chhoti-bethnu). Chhotlí, ad. f. Defiled, polluted. m. -á, pl. -é. Menstruation. Chhubkuwe-náchnu, v. See Chubkuwe-náchnu. Chhukrá, n.m. A musical measure. Chhulnu, v.i. re. To jump and skip to avoid an arrow. Chhunli, n.f. A term used for 2 bighas of land. Chhúnwnu, v.t. re. (H. chhúná). To touch; f. -í, pl. -e. Chhúru, ad. m. A handful. Chhút, n.f. (1) Leisure. (2) Remission. Chhút, n.f. Leisure. -ní-honi, v.i. ir. To have no leisure. Chhutnu, v.i. re. To get rid, to escape, to be left; f. -i, pl. -é. Chhutt, ad. See Chhänite. Chhwain, n.m. Leafy bedding for cattle, used to make manure. Chhwanu, v.t. re. (1) To spread; f. -1, pl. -e. (2) To set. (3) To Chhwáňwá, n.m. The act of touching. -láná, v.i. re. To touch. Chhwanuwen, adv. At the setting place, the west. Charu, n.m. (H. chárá.) Fodder. Chaurá, n.m. A courtyard. Chi, n.f. A pine tree. (Also chir.) Chij, n.f. (H. chiz). A thing, an article. -o. Things. Chíjá, ad. See Chaun. Chiji, ad. See Chaun. Chik, n.f. Mud or earth. -lání, v.i. re. To clean the hands with mud and water after going to stool (also chik). Chiknát, adj. Slippery, n.m. A patch of smooth mud. Chikna, or -u, adj. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Smooth. Chil, n.f. A kite. Chilim, n.f. Mouthpiece of a huqqá. Chilk, n.f. The morning sunshine on the highest peaks. ni, v.i. re. To appear, of sunshine on the peaks. -lágíjáni, v.i. ir. To have appeared, of sunshine on the peaks. Chilrá or chiltá, n.m.; pl. -é. A kind of bread. Chim-ráw-nu, v.t. re. To attach, to paste; f. -i, pl. -é. Chimrnu, v.t. r. To adhere, to cling to; f. -i, pl. -é. Chimri, n.f. The yellow wasp. Chimtá, n.m. (H). Tongs. f. i. A small tongs; pl. é. Chimtnu, v.i. re. To be hurt. Ching, n.f. Cry, screaming. -nu, v.i. re. To scream. Chini or chiné, n.f. A kind of corn. Chin-nú, v.t. re. To recognise; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chin-nu, v.t. re. To build, to erect; /. -i, pl. -é.

·Chinthá, n.m. The back of the head.

Chintá, n.f. (S. Chitá.) The funeral pile, for cremation. v.i. re. To prepare a funeral pile for cremation.

Chiňwáň, n.m. A plant that grows near water and is used as a medicine for burns.

Chíňwnu, v.i. re. To get burnt; f.-i, pl. é.

Chirá, n.m. A bit, a part. v p.t. Cut, tore; f.-i, pl.-e.

Chiran, n.m. A stick (worm).

Chirg, n.f. An ache, a pain.

Chirkhu-masán, n.m. A male spirit which swings, whence its name. It haunts cross-roads and frightens the passers-by (used in Chambá).

Chirmakan, n.m. Warbling.

Chirmaknu, v.i. re. To warble; f.-i, pl.-é.

Chirmiruwá or u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl -é. Scattered.

Chirnu, v.i. re. To be angry or indignant; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chirnu, v.t. re. To saw, to tear, to cut; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chiru, n.m. A small kind of bird; f. -1.

Chirwnu, v.i. re. To be torn; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chirwijánu, v.i. re. To be torn; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chish, n.f. Water. -lágni, v.i. re. To be thirsty.

Chishé or -u, adj. m.; f. -i, pl. -e. Thirsty. Chishe-raunu, v.i. ir. To remain thirsty.

Chit, ad. Flat. -honu, v.i. ir. To be flat. -raunu, v.i. ir. To die.

Chit, n.f. pl. -o. An ant. (Also chiúňti.)

Chitá or -u, ad. m.; f. .í, pl. -e. White.

Chitá, n.f. (S.) A funeral pile.

Chiterá, n.m. (S. Chitrakára.) A painter, a picture-maker.

Chiteraunu, v.t. ir. To remain in memory; f.-i, pl. -é.

Chithi, n.f. (H.) A letter. (Chinthi in Madhan). Theog.

Chithrá or -u, n.m.; pl. -é. A rag.

Chito, n.f. pl.; sing. Chit. An ant. (Also chyúňti and makori in Bághal and Kunihár States.)

Chitrá, n.m. (1) A medicinal herb. (2) Name of a constellation.

Chitwnu, v.t. re. To remember; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chiú, ad. See Chaun. Chiunți, n.f. See Chit.

Chiuri, n.f. Roasted rice for chewing.

Chiuti, n.f. A small pine tree.

Chiwnu or Chinwnu, v.i. re. To be burnt; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chiyá, ad. See Chaun.

Chlái, n.f. (H. chaulái.) A kind of greens.

Chochlá, n.m. A jest. -u, n.m. f. -i, pl. -é. A jester.

Chogá, n.m. (H.) A kind of long cloak.

Chói, n.f. A spring of water.

Chókan, n.m. Cooked pulse or vegetables, or meat.

Chokhu, adj. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Clean, chaste.

Choknu, v.i. re. To dip, to plunge; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chokwnu, v.i. re. To be dipped or plunged.

Cholá or -u, n.m. A dress, a cloak; pl. -é.

Choli, n.f. A female dress.

Choltá or -u, n.m. A small dress or cloak; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chóltu, n.m. A small cloak.

Chónr, n.m. (S. Chámara.) Chowry, the tail of the Bos grunniens, used to whisk off flies; also as an emblem or insigne of princely rank.

Chóp, \vec{n} . (1) A pole, a tent-pole. (2) The gum of a tree.

Chopar, n.m. Butter.

Choparnu, v.t. re. To rub with butter or oil; /. -i.

Chopdár, n.m. (H.) See Chhariyá.

Chór, n.m. and f. (H.) A thief, a robber. f. -i. A theft, thieving or robbery.

Chor, n.m. A white sorrel.

Chorá, n.m. Leaking. -lágná, v.i. re. To leak.

Chornu, v.t. re. To steal; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chornu, v.t. re. f. -i, pl. -e. To pluck.

Chornu, v.t. re. (H. torná.) To break, to crush; f. í, pl. é. Tinién meri díngli chorí pái, "He has broken my stick."

Chorwnu, v.i. re. To be concealed or stolen.

Choshá, n.m. pl. -é. A burn.

Choshnu, v.t. re. To burn with fire; f. -i, pl. -é.

Choshwnu, v.i. re. To be burnt; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chó't, n. f. (H.) A hurt. -deni, v.t. rc. To throw away.

Chothrá or-u, n.m. A deep basket. f.-i. A small basket. pl.-c.Baskets.

Chothrá, -u, n.m. A basket used to keep grain, etc. f. -í. A small basket. pl. -é. Baskets.

Choti, n.f. (1) A top, a peak. (2) A pigtail.

Chráí, n.f. (H. chaurái.) Breadth or width.

Chraithá, n.m.; f.-í, pl. é. The knee.

Chrássi, ad. 84.

Chrél, n.f. A hag, a slut, the ghost of a woman who dies while pregnant.

Chréori, n.f. Twine, to which rhododendron flowers are attached. It is hung on every house at the Baisákhi Saňkránt called Bishu.

Chrerú, n.m. pl. Birds. Chrerú báshdé lágé: "The birds began to warble."

Chrin, n.f. A bad smell

Chrírá, n.m. pl. -é. A kind of insect having long hair on the body, long in size, and with many feet.

Chrirnu, v.t. re. To stretch, to spread; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chtiknu, v.i. re. To crack, to jump; f. i, pl. -é.

Chubhnu, v.i. re. (H. chubhná.) To pierce; f. -i, pl. -é.

Chubki, n.f. A dip. -marni, v.t. re. To take a dip.

Chubkuwé náchnu, v.i. re. To dance to the tune called Chubkú, also idiomatically, 'to be much pleased.'

Chúg, n.f. Grain for birds. (Also chugá.)

Chugal or chugl, n.m. A small piece of charcoal or stone placed on the aperture of a pipe to prevent the tobacco from going down into the pipe.

Chugli, n.f. A complaint, slander. -páni, v.i. re. To backbite.

Chugl-khór, n.m. and f. (H.) A backbiter.

Chugáwnú, v.t. re. (See Charáwnu.)

Chugnu, v.t. re. (See Charnu.)

Chúhrá, n.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. A sweeper.

Chúi-jáni, v.i. ir. To miscarry.

Chúj, n.m. A young hawk.

Chúk, n.f. (1) An oath on the ruler. (2) A mistake.

Chuknu, v.i. re. (1) To take an oath on the ruler. (2) To err, forget.

Chúl, n.f. The lower part of a door.

Chuli, n.f. (S. Chullí.) A stove.

Chumak, n.f. A silver mouthpiece for a hubblebubble.

Chuňch, n.f. (S. Chaňchu.) (H. chonch.) A beak, a bill. Also chúňj. Chuňchu, n.m. (S. Chuchuka = nipple of the breast.) Breast.

Chundi, n.f. The top (of a tree). A distich goes:—

Chía chuňdié ghugti báshau, báno chuňdié totá; Kalí jugo rá póhrá lágá, dádi láî-guwá potá.

"A dove is warbling on the top of a pine, and a parrot on the top of an oak;

'Tis sad of this iron age, that a grandson has taken away a grandmother.''

Chundu, n.m. A pinch. -édeni, v.i. ir. To pinch.

Chungnu, v.t. re. To take up, to lift up; f.-i, pl.-é, to pick.

Chungnu, v.t. re. To pick up; f.-i, pl.-é.

Chungu or chungu-bir, n.m. A male spirit, under a sorcerer's control, and employed to bring things to him. It also drinks the milk of cows and brings milk, ghi, etc., to its owner (used in Chamba and the Simla Hills, respectively).

Chún-pún, n.m. Goodness.

Chup, n.m. (H.) Silence. -karni, v.i. re. To be silent.

Chupá or -u, ad.m.; f. i, pl. -é. Silent, quiet, tranquil.

Chupe-raunu, v.i. ir. To keep quiet, to be silent.

Chúrá, n.m. Powder, dust, saw-dust. Churí, n.f. Bangles made of lac or glass.

Churk-churk-láni or karni, v.t. re. To chew anything.

Churnu, v.t. re. To crush; f. -i, pl. -é.

Churnu, v.i. re. To leak; f. -i, pl. -é.

Churwnu, v.i. re. To be crushed; f.-i, pl.-é.

Chushnu, v.t. re. To suck, to absorb; f.-i, pl.-é.

Chút, n.f. (1) Breakage. (2) The act of breaking, or decrease. (3) Deficiency.

Chutiyá, ad. m. and f. pl. -é. Fool, ignorant.

Chutnu, v.i. re. To be broken. ti-jánu, v.i. re. To be broken.

Chutpaná, n.m. Folly.

Chwanni, n.f. (H. chawanni.) The coin of four annas.

Chyáuň, n.m. See Chéuň.

Chyâwan, n.m. (Fr. chi, pine, and ban, forest.) A pineforest. Chyettá, ad. m. See Chettá.

Dá or -u, masc. affix, f. -í, pl. -é. In, into, within; examples:— Indá dud ni ánthi. "There is no milk in it." Lotridi chish ni rauwi. "There is no water in the jug." Tinde michh bi rau? "Do men live in them?" Tindu kun thu? "' Who was in that (house)?''

 D_{a} , n.f. A jump, a spring, a bound.

Dá'b, n.m. Pressure. -ádená, v.i. ir. To press.

Dábá, n.m. A round wooden box; /. -i. A small round box; pl. -é.

Dábá, n.m. Plaster (medical). -dená or -láná, v.i. re. To apply a plaster.

Dabáw, n.m. Pressure. -dená, v.t. re. To press.

Dabáwnu, v.t. re. To press down; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dabnu, v.i. re. To be pressed; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dábnu, v.t. re. To press; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dábr, n.f. A small pond or tank; f.-i. A very small pond.

Dá'ch or Drá't, n.m. A large sickle; /. -i. A small sickle. -ru or -tu or -ti. A small sickle to cut grass.

Dádá, n.m. Grandfather; pl. -é, f. -í. Grandmother.

Dadháná, n.m. The melon fruit, tarbúj in Hindi.

Dadiyá. A term of address; f. -i. O my friend.

Daf, n.m. A kettledrum. -ru, n.m. A kind of small kettledrum.

Dáfi. A small recess in a wall. (Syn. Tirá or Tiri.)

Dá'g, n.f. A witch. -lágni, v.i. re. To be influenced by a witch. Dá'g, n.m. Cremation. (2) A spot. dene, v.t. ir. To cremate. Dagá, n.m. (P.) Pretence, a trick. -dená, v.t. re. To play a

trick.

Dagándrá, n.m. A kind of disease in which an itching sensation is felt on the body. -láná, v.i. re. To suffer from that disease.

Dagetu, n.m.; f. -ì, pl. -é. The children of a Dágí.

Daghélú, n.m. Heels.

Dágí, nm. and f. A low-caste people who render menial services. (Also kóli and dághi.)

Dágle, ad. Bitter.

A Proverb-

Hat merie Bághale, Jethi ban bút bi dágle.

"What is to be said of Bághal State. Where even the wild plants are bitter?" Dágnu, v.i. re. To fire. (2) To burn with fire; f.-i, pl.-é.

Dagrasa, n.m. (H. garasa.) A kind of instrument used to cut plants, etc., as fodder for cattle.

Dagyáli, n.f. The 14th and 30th, i.e., the Chaudas and Amávas of the dark half of Bhádo are termed "Dagyáli," on which days the Dags are believed to assemble at the Karol mountain in Baghát territory.

Dáh, n.m. (S. Dáha = combustion.) A burning. -láná, v.i. ir.

To cremate.

Dáh, n.m. Envy.

Dái, n.f. (H.) A nurse. (2) A sister. Example: Dáié ká bole. "What do you say, sister?"

Dain or daini, n.f. A den, a large hole in a rock.

Dáin, n.f. See Dág.

Dain, n.m. (S. dadhin, H. dahi.) Curds; curdled sour milk, Dainthi, n.f. Chin.

Daiyá, int. O God! O my God!

Dá'j, n.m. (H. dahéz.) The articles of a dowry.

Dák or Dáki, n.f. Vomit. - áwni or - lágni, v.i. re. To vomit.

Dá'k, n.f. (H.) The mail.

Dá'kdhar, n.m. (E. doctor). A doctor.

Dakenní, n.f. A kind of small fox. (Also dakánní.)

Dá'kghar, n.m. (H.) Post office.

Dakhl, n.m. (P. dakhl.) Interference. -dená, v.i. ir. To interfere.

Dáki, n.f. Vomit, vomiting. -áwni, v.i. re. To vomit.

Dákiyá, n.m. (H.) A postman.

Dákkh, n.f. (S. Drákshá.) Grapes. pl. -o. -láni, v.i. re. To plant grapes.

Dakhn, n.m. (S. Dakshina.) The south.

Dákņu, v.i. re. To vomit.

Dá'l, n.f. (H. dál.) Pulse (cooked or uncooked.)

Dá'l, n.m. A tree. f.-i. A small tree or plant; pl.-o.

Dálá, n.m. Cooked corn for cattle.

Daláshá, n.m. (H. dilásá.) Condolence, encouragement. -dená, v.t. ir. To condole, to encourage.

Daláwnu, v.t. re. To cause to grind coarsely; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dalki, n.f. Meat, flesh.

Dalnu, v.t. re. (H. dalná.) To split, to grind coarsely; f. -1, pl. -é.

Dálnu, v.t. re. To break, to cut in two; f. -i, pl. -é.

Daltá, n.m. An esculent root like the potato.

Dáltá, n.m. f. -í, pl. -é. A small tree. (2) A kind of tree.

Daltí, n.f. Torch-wood.

Dám, n.m. A burn. -dená, v.i. re. To burn.

Dam, n.m. A box made of bamboo and covered with leather, used for travelling (Basháhr).

Damáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to burn; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dámnu, v.t. re. To burn; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dáň, n.m. A long stick used to pluck walnuts.

Dá'n, n.m. (S. Dána.) A donation, a gift. -dená, v.i. ir. To make a gift. -laná, v.i. ir. To get a gift. -karná, v.t. re. To offer a gift.

Dáná, ad. m.; f.-í, pl. é. Wise, clever, expert.

Dáná, n.m. A pimple, seed, corn, grain; $p\hat{l}$.-é.

Dánd, n.m. pl. or sing. (S. danta.) Tooth or teeth. -chorne, v.i. re. To break one's teeth

Dánd, n.m. (S. Danda.) A fine, penalty, punishment.

Daňdá, n.m. (1) A pole. (2) A bachelor.

Dándi, n.f.- (1) A small palanquin. (2) Earrings.

Dándnu. v.t. re. To fine, to punish, to impose a penalty.

Dángrá, n.m. A small weapon like an axe.

Dángú, n.m. A gatekeeper. (Used in Mandí State.)

Dángru, n.m. See Dángrá.

Dáno, n.m. (S. Dánava.) A demon, a ghost.

Dá'nu, v.t. re. To bend down; f. -í, pl. -é.

Dánu, v.t. re. To stretch, to spread; f. i, pl. é.

Dáňwáň, n.m. A sinew, pl.-eň.

Dáňwthe, n.m. pl. See Chilrá.

Dáo or daw, n.f. A chance.

Dapét, n.m. A blow.

Dar, n./. (H.) Fear, fright. -lágni, v.i. re. To fear.

Dá'r, n.m. (S. Dáru = wood.) Timber.

Dá'r, n.f. A flock of birds, such as wild pigeons.

Dá'r, n.m. Grinding the teeth. -dukhne, v.i. re. To feel toothache. Daráin, n.m. An inflated skin used for crossing a river (Also Sanái.)

Daráwná, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Fearful.

Daráwnu, v.t. re. (H. daráná.) To cause to fear, to put in fear; f. -i, pl. -é.

Darí, n.f. (H.) A durree.

Dárí, n.f. (H.) The beard.

Dáriyá, m. f. -é. O my dear.

Darknu, v.i re. To crack; f-i, pl.-c. Darnu, v.t. re. To take away. (Used in Balsan.)

Darpók, ad. (H.) Coward (alike in all genders.)

Dárú, n.m. (H.) Gunpowder.

Darú, n.m. and f. One who fears.

Dárú, n.m. Pomegranate fruit. -ó. n.m. The pomegranate

Daryáw or dráw, n.m. A river. (H.)

Dásá, n.m. A long beam. (Also chewäl.)

Dash, ad. (S. Dasha.) Ten. -wáň, ad. The tenth.

Dashá, n.f. (S.) Fate. Buri-, n.f. Bad luck.

Dashándá, ad. m.; f. í, pl.-é. A fool. Pánde khe dashándá. "A fool before a learned man."

Dashmi, n.f. (S. Dashami). The tenth day of the bright or dark half of a month.

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Dashmi, n.f. (S. Dashimi.) The tenth of the light or dark half a month.

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Dashnu, v.t. re. To point out, to let know; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dasshi, n.f. A Frill, a fringe.

Däsúni, n.f. (S. Devashayini.) A term for the Ekádashí or 11th of the bright half of Ashárh month.

Dát, n.m. A threatening or warning.

Dátnu, v.t. re. To threaten, to warn; f. -i. pl. -é.

Daudá, n.m. A water place made for putting children to sleep in shade in summer so that a trickle of water gently falls on their heads (also dódá).

Dauné, n.m. pl. A kind of food.

Daur, n.f. (H.) A run.

Daur, n.m. (H. Dar.) Fear, terror. lágná, v.i. rc. To fear.

Kyaiň daur ní. "There is no fear."

Dauráwnu, v.t. re. To cause to run; f. -i, pl. -é.

Daurnu, v.i. re. To run, to walk with hasty steps; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dayá, n.f. (S.) Benevolence, tenderness.

Dáyí, n.f. See Dái.

De, A particle. See Dá.

Debi, n./. (S. Deví.) A goddess.

Debri, n.f. A small temple.

Debtá, n.m. (H.) See Deo.

Debu, n.m. and f. A giver, a donor.

Dédh, ad. See Dér.

Dé'g, n.m. A cauldron, a boiler.

Dé-ghálnu, v.t. re. To give away; f. i, pl. -é.

Dei-janu, v.t. ir. To give away; f.-i, pl.-e. Dekhdé-ákhi-kharni, v.i. re. To tire the eyes with looking.

Dekhí-a, dekhí-ro, c.p. Having seen.

Dé'n, n.m. (S. Rina.) A debt. -dárí. n.f. A debt.

Denu, v.t. ir. (H. dená.) To give, bestow upon; f. -i, pl. -é. Denu, v.i. re. See Dewnu.

Deo, n.m. (S. Deva.) A deity, a village god. -lu or -lá. ad. m. f.-lí, pl.-lé. Pertaining to a deity.

Deolá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Relating to a deity.

Deoru or -á, n.m.; f. -i, pl. -é. A small temple of a deity.

Deothá, n.m. (From Déo, a deity, and páthá, a grain measure.)
A term for the grain given to a village deity. Two páthás
per líh of land (8 bíghás) is given for the village deity.

Deothan, n.f. (S. Devothapini.) A festival observed on the 11th of the bright half of Kártik.

Déotí, n.f. A goddess.

Der, ad. (H.) One and a half. (Also dudh or dur.)

Derá or -u. (H.) (1) A lodging, a dwelling. (2) A small tent.

Désh, n.m. (S. Desha.) A country.

Deshkt or deshkat, e.f. Banishment, deportation. -deni, v.i. ir. To exile, to banish, to deport.

Desó, n.m. (S. Desha, a country.) A country, a place, a room.

Deshr, ad. Of one's own country, a native.

Dess, n.m. (S. Divasa.) A day. -rú, n.m. pl. Short days. -áré, n. pl. Long days.

Déur, n.m. Husband's brother.

Dewnu, v.i. re. To go.

Dewijanu, v.i. re. To go away. Dgáňdrá, n.m. See Dagáňdrá.

Dhá, n.f. A sad or mourning keen. -deni, v.i. ir. To keen at anyone's death.

Dhab. n.m. Manner.

Dhabáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to settle; f.-i, pl. é.

Dháblu, n.m. f.-i. A white blanket; f.-i. A small blanket.

Dhabnu, v.i. re. To settle, to be all right; f.-i, pl.-é.

Dhábnu, v.t. re. To mix water in watery curds.

Dhafér, n.m. pl. (H. thappar.) A blow. -bá'né, v.t. ir. Togive a blow. (Also draffar.)

Dhágá, n.m. pl.-é. Thread.

Dhágule, n.m. pl. Bracelets.

Dhain or dhaini, n.f. A daughter. Dhajá, n.f. (S. Dhwajá.) A flag.

Dhá'k, n.m. A rock, a precipice (also dhánk). -ru, n.f. A small precipice.

Dhakh, ad. A little quantity.

Dháká, n.m. (H. dhakká.) Jolt, push, shove. -dená, v.t. ir. To push, to shove.

Dháká, n.m. A cover, a lid. -dená, v.i. re. To cover.

Dhakam-dhaká, n.m. A violent shove or jolt. Dhákan, n.m. (H.) A cover, a lid, a pot-lid.

Dhakh, ad. A little, a small quantity.

Dhakiyawnu, v.t. re. To cause to jolt; f.-i, pl.-é.

Dhaknu, v.t. re. To cover; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dhákri, n.f. A small precipice.

Dhákru, n.m. See Dhákri.

Dhákuli, n.f. A drum like an hour glass.

Dhákuri, n.f. A small ridge.

Dhákú, n.m. and f. pl. Monkeys. (So called because they live among precipices.)

Phá'l, n.f. Abortion. -jáni, v.i. ir. To produce abortion.

Dhál, n.f. (1) A salutation. -karni, v.t. ir. To bow down. Dhál thákrá, miyáňji jai. Pars Rámá, pairi pai. "O Thákur, I beg to salute you, O Miyán, I salute you, O Pars Rám, I bow down to you." A hail. (2) A tax on land levied to pay tribute (used in Mahlog).

Dhálá, n.m. A peak, the top of a hill.

Dhalde-áwnu, v.i. re. To decay; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dhalnu, v.i. re. (1) To set in. (2) To be melted; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dhálnu, v.t. re. To cause to melt.

Dhalnu, v.i. re. (1.) To be poured down. (2.) To fall down.

Dha'm, a.f. A grand feast in which rice and meat are distributed. -deni, v.t. re. (1) To give a grand feast. (2) To applaud.

Dhamáká n.m. A loud sound.

Dhamká, n.m. (1) A sound. (2) A fright.

Dhamkaw, n.m. Threatening. -dená, v.t. ir. To threaten.

Dhamkawnu, v.t. re. To threaten; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dhamki, n.f. A threat or threatening.

Dhan, n.m. (S. Dhana.) Riches, wealth.

Dhá'n, n.m. pl. (S. Dhánya.) (1) Rice seed. (2) Paddy. -bone, v.i. ir. To sow rice.

Dhan-báchrí, n.f. pl. Winged ants. Their wings grow in the rice-sowing season (March), hence the name.

Dhandá, n.m. (H.) Work, an engagement. -karná, v.i. ir. To do a work. -láná, v.t. re. To be engaged. Dháng, n.m. (S. Dansha.) A gadfly.

Dhang, n.m. (H.) A manner or mode. -láná, v.i. re. To devise a plan : f. -i. pl. -é.

Dhangiyá, ad.m. Cunning, deep.

Dhania, n.m. See Bihan.

Dhankh, n.m. See Dhák.

Dháňkhar, n.m. A wilderness.

Dhánsi, n.f. A grain measure equal to 2 seers and 6 chhitaks (2 páthás make 1 dháňsi): used in Kullu.

Dhanáthi, n.f. Wool-carding bow.

Dhanu, n.m. (S. Dhanusha.) The weapon, bow.

Dhá'r, n.f. (H.) A ridge. (2) A pouring. (3) An edge.

Dhar, n.m. (H.) A body without its head.

Dhará, n.m. (H.) A robbery. -parná, v.i. re. To rob. Dharam, n.m. (S. Dharma.) Virtue, goodness, duty.

Dháraptú, n.m. An assistant clerk (used in Maňdí State).

Dharmaurá, n.m. (S. Dharmaghata.) An earthen pot filled with water, and a little milk, hung on a tree or house for 10 days after a death. It has a small hole at the bottom through which the water drips and is refilled every morning.

Dharnu, v.t. re. To put, to keep, place; f.-i, pl.-é.

Dharor or dhrór. (H. dharohar.) A pledge.

Dhárádhár, ad. By way of the ridge.

Dhárthá, 'n.m.; f.-i, pl.-é. A small ridge.

Dhárti, n.f. See Dhárthá.

Dhartí, n.f. (S. Dharitrí.) The earth.

Dhashnu, v.i. re. To plunge in.

Dhasrálá, n.m. A loud noise or sound.

Dhat, n.f. (H.) Passion.

Dhátu or dháthu, n.m A kerchief worn on the head by females. (Madhán, Theog, Balsan, Kumhársain, Basháhr and Kullú.) Dhaulá or -u.; f. -i, pl. -é. See Chitá (H.).

Dhaun-nu, v.t. re. Towarn; f. -i, pl. -é.

Dhaunsá, n.m. A large kettledrum which is sounded on horseback on the marriage of a chief (also dhónsá). Dhaunthi, n.f. A small bow, used to card wool. Dhauri, n.f. The hide of an ox or buffalo. :1 Dhauwanu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to earn. Dháwá, n.m. (H.) An invasion. Dheká, n.m.; /.-i, pl.-é. A fool. Dhelá, n.m. (H.) Half-a-pice; f.-i. Half-a-rupee; eight annas. Dhé'n, n.f. (S. Dhenu.) (1) A cow. (2) A donation. Dhéotá, n.m. A maternal grandson; f.-i. A maternal granddaughter. Dhér, n. A heap, a mass. -lágnu, v.i. re. To be heaped. Dherá, adv. (S. Dhairya.) Wait a little. Dhi, n.f. (Punjábí.) A daughter. Dhíi, n.f. (S. Dhairya.) Belief, confidence. -dharnu, v.i. re. To have patience, or reliance. Dhijáwnu, v.t. re. To make believe; f. -i, pl. -é. Dhijnu, v.t. re. To believe, to trust; f. -1, pl. -é. Dhikki, n.f. The hiccough. lágni, v.i. re. To hiccough. Dhimá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -e. Mild, tender. Dhindhrá, n.m. pl. -é. A kind of food made of esculent leaves mixed with gram flour and cooked in vapour or ghi. Dhingá-dhingi, n.f. Violence, force. Dhingá-dhingiyé, adv. Forcibly. Dhinkó, n. f. pl. Humblings. Dhinkó, n.j. pl. Beseeching. Dhirá, adv. In a waiting manner. -ho, v. Wait a little. Dhirj, n.m. (S. Dhairya.) Patience. -dharnu, v. To be patient. Dhishnu, v.t. re. (S. Drishir.) To see; f. -i, pl. -é. (Also dishnu.) Dhivé. A polite phrase used in addressing boys. Dhnichhá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Brown. Dhobbi, n.m. (H. dhobi.) A washerman. ni-, f. The washerman's wife, -tu, n.m. The son of a washerman. -ti, n.f. The daughter of a washerman. Dhofá, n.m. See Dhoká. Dhoh or -á, n.m. A place. Dhoká, n.m. (H. dhokhá.) Misunderstanding. -lágnu, v.i. re. To misunderstand. (Also dhofá.) Dhó'l, n.m. (H.) A drum. -bajáwnu, v.i. re. To beat a drum.

Phô'l, n.m. (H.) A drum. -bajáwnu, v.i. re. To beat a drum. -chi, n.m. A drummer. -ki, n.j. A small drum. -iyá, n.m. One who beats a drum.

Dhônsá, n.m. See Dhaunsá.

Dhônsi, n.f. A grain measure equal to 9 seers and 8 chhitaks.

(Two kánsís make one dhonsi): used in Kullu. Dhonu, v.t. re. (H. dhoná.) To wash; f. -í, pl. -é. Dhonu, v.t. re. To carry; f. -í, pl. -é.

Dhorá, n.m. Management. (Also skerá.)

Dhóti, n.f. (H.) A piece of cloth worn between legs.

Dhów. See Dhóh.

Dhowá, n.m. A place, a room.

Dhowawnu, v.t. re. To cause to carry; f. -1, pl. -6.

Dhrágul, n.f. (Fr. dhár, a ridge, and bágur, the air.) The air that blows on a ridge.

Dhrárí, n.f. A wild plant which bears white flowers and produces a cotton-like substance, which when dry is used for tinder.

Dhui, n.f. The female organ.

Dhuinshlu or -a, ad.m.; f. -i, pl. -é. (S. dhúsara.) Grey (in colour).

Dhúl, n.f. (H.) Dust.

Dhúm-dhám, n.m. (H.) Pomp...

Dhumru or -á, ad.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. See Dhuinshlu.

Dhunawnu, v.t. re To cause to shiver.

Dhun-fri, n.t. A kind of plant used as a vegetable. Dhun-nu, v.i. and t. re. (1) To shiver. (2) To churn.

Dhun-wán, n.m. (S. Dhúma.) Smoke.

Dhúp, n.f. (H.) Incense.

Dhúr, n.f. (1) The uppermost part of a roof. (2) A peak. (3) Direction.

Dhúr, n.m. pl. The four quarters or directions. Chau dhûre. "In the four directions."

Dhuri or dhuru, adv. All over the country.

Dhurpat, n.m. A plank used for teaching letters, written with red powder, to boys.

Dhushli, n.f. Mismanagement.

Dhuwá, n.f. See Dhui.

Dhuwáň, n.m. Smoke. -lagná, v.í. re. To feel smoke.

Dhwálá, n.m. A kind of tax, levied at one rupee per landholder (used in Koti).

Dhwáli, n.f. (1) A descent, down-hill. (2) A tax. (See dhwálá.)

Dhwa'r, n.m. (H. udha'r.) A borrowing. -denu, v.t. re. To make a loan. -lenu, v.t. ir. To borrow.

Dhwawi, n.f. A milkmaid.

Dhyan, n.m. (S. Dhyana.) Meditation. lanu, v.i. re. To meditate.

Dhyá'n, n./. See Dhain.

Dhyara, n.m. pl. -é. The day. -i. n.f. Daily rations.

Dhyari-dhyari, adv. Every day.

Diáli, n.f. (S. Dípávali.) The Diwáli festival.

Dib, n.m. (S. Divya = Divine.) An oath. denu. v.i. re. To give an oath. lenu, v.i. ir. To take an oath.

Dibr, n.m. A pond. -i, n.f. A small tank.

Dibrú, n.m. -í, n.f. A small vessel used to cook in.

Dihnu, v.i. re. To snow. (Also dinhnu.)

Dik, n.m. (P.) Trouble.

Diku, n.m. Snowfall. -lágnu, v.i. re. To fall, of snow.

Diku lágá Jáhruwé, Jhotá kátá Badáruwé.

"It began to snow at Jáhrú,1

And a male buffalo was sacrificed by the Badârú² people."

Dil, n.m. (P.) The heart, mind. -denu, v.i. ir. To give heart. -lánu, v.i. ir. To be attentive. -dekhnu, v.i. re. To examine one's heart. -o du honu, v.i. ir. To be in good heart.

Dilri, ad. f. A cow or buffalo having horns which point downwards.

Dím, n.m. A temple of a deity. -ri. n.f. A small temple.

Ding, n.m. A stick, a bar. -é, adv. With a stick.

Dingli, n.f. A small stick. (Also dingtá.)

Dinwan, n.m. The man who speaks on behalf of a deity. Diwan or dewa.

Diňwan, n.m. Snowfall.

Din-uk, n.m. pl. (H. dimak.) White-ants.

Díň-wiň, n.f. The wife of a díňwáň.

Dishnu, v.t. re. (S. Drishir.) See Dhishnu

Ditá or -u, m.; /. -i, pl. -é. v.p.t. Gave. (See Dénu.) (Also dittá.)

Diun-nu, v.i. re. To snow.

Diuti, n.f. -tú, n.m. A small earthen lamp.

Diut, n.m. (H. diwat.) A lamp or lamp-stand.

Divli, n.f. A firefly. (Also dyúwli.)

Diwá, n.m. (S. Dípa.) (H.) A lamp (of earth).

Diwáň, n.m. See Diňwáň.

Diwi, n.f. A small lamp lighted with clarified butter at a religious ceremony.

Diwt, n.m. (H. diwat.) A lamp-stand.

Dlángá, ad. m. A pine or cedar tree having two long branches; f. -1, pl. é.

Dlichá, n.m. (P. gálíchá.) A rug, a carpet.

Dlúchá, n.m. A torch (of torch-wood).

Dnáu, n.m. A kind of wild cat.

Dó, ad. (H.) Two.

Dóbá, n.m. Destruction, ruining.

Dobnu, v.t. re. To destroy.

Dobru or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Of twofold.

Do'chi, n.f. A hamlet. -lágni, v.i. re. To look after two villages.

Dodá, n.m. A soap-nut. -e-rá-dá'!, n.m. The soap-nut tree.

Dófá, n.m. (See Dhofá.)

Doh. (S. Droha.) Enmity.

Jáhrú is the name of a place in Simla.
 Badáru is a sept of Kanets in Koti State.

Dohá, n.m. (H.) (1) A couplet. (2) A poetry.

Dohái, n.f. (H. duhái.) Exclamation.

Dóhar, n.f. A sheet of cloth.

Dohí, n.m. (S. drohin.) Enmity (used in Kuthár).

Dohrá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Double.

Dohri, n.f. A blanket.

Dohrí-purni, v. -i. re. To cross or penetrate.

Dohru, n.m. A large blanket.

Dókh, n.m. (See Dósh.)

Dó'l, n.m. (H.) Swinging.

Dó'l, n.m. (H.) A bucket. Dólai or dolé. With a bucket.

Dolá, n.m. A kind of palanquin for a bride; f. -i, A small palanquin.

Dolri, n.f. An ornament, a garland.

Don-né, n.m. pl. A kind of food.

Don-ru, n.m. (S. Damaru.) A small drum of the hour-glass shape.

Dortu or dortí, n.m. or f. A small field.

Dóru, n.m. (1) A field. (2) An ornament of women.

Do'ti, n.f. A very small plot of land.

Báro háth do'ti-Tháro háth moi.

"A little field 6 yards long, and a smoothing plough 9 yards wide."

Dó'tu, n.m. A small field. (Also do'ti, n.f.)

Dottai, adv. To-morrow. Se awna a dottai, "He is to come to-morrow."

Dotté, adv. To-morrow.

Dpóhr, n.m. (S. Dwi-prahara, midday.) Midday. -honá, v.i. ir. To become midday.

Dráni, n.f. The wife of one's husband's younger brother. (Also dreni.)

Drá't, n.m. A long kind of sickle used to cut thorns. -i, n.f. A sickle used to cut grass. (Syn. Dá'ch.) (The vowel a is prolated.)

Dráti, n.f. See Dách.

Dréni, n.f. See Dráni.

Drés, n.f. A chintz.

Drotu, n.m. Earrings.

Drub, n.f. (See Júb.)

Drubdá, n.f. (S. Dwividhá.) Doubt.

Dselu or -a, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -e. That which is not level.

Dsúni, n.f. (S. Deva-shayaní.) A festival observed on the 11th of the bright half of Ashár.

Duálnu, v.t. re. See Duwálnu.

Dúhná, n.m. A milking pot.

Dúj, n.f. (S. Dwitiyá.) The second day of the bright or dark half of a month. Bhái-n.f. A festival which takes place on the second of the bright half of Kártik. One's sister

is visited and food taken from her hands; she is rewarded according to one's means.

Dujá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Second.

Dujríé, adv. Secondly.

Dukh, n.m. (S. Duhkha.) Trouble. -honu, v.i. re. To be troubled.

Dukháwnu, v.t. re. To put to trouble.

Dukhí or dukhiá, ad. Troubled.

Dukhná, n.m. pl.-é. An ulcer, a blister, a hurt.

Dukhnu, n.m. (1) A blister, an ulcer. (2) v.i. re. To feel pain.

Dulchá, n.m. A torch of torchwood. -karná, v.i. re. To light a torch.

Dúm, n.m. The name of a village deity.

Dumrá, n.m.; f. -í, pl. é. A low caste.

Dunds, n.m. A dead feetus.

Dungu, $or - \acute{a}$, ad. m.; $f. - \acute{i}$, $pl. - \acute{e}$. Deep.

Dunkar, n.m. A precipice.

Dunku or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Doubled; -karnu. v. t. ir. To make two-fold.

Dunu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Doubled, twofold.

Dunu, n.m. A kind of wild onion.

Dupattá, n.m. (H.) A sheet of cloth.

Düpó'hr, n.f. (S. Dwiprahara.) Midday.

Dúr, ad. See Dér.

Dur, ad. Far away. n.m. Distance.

Durb, n.m. A grain measure. 100 khárshas make one durb.

Durbhág, n.m. (S. Durbhúgya.) Misfortune, complaint. -dená, v. To complain.

Durkanu, v.i. re. To run on; f. -í, pl. -é.

Durr, phrase. A cross word, to say "be off."

Dushellá, ad.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Sloping.

Düsillá, n.m. Two ears of wheat or barley or maize in one, supposed to be an ill omen.

Duwálnu, v.t. re. To enter.

Dwádash, n.t. (S. Dwádashi.) The twelfth day of the bright or dark half of a month.

Dwánni, n.f. (H. dowanni.) The coin of 2 annas.

Dwa'r, n.m. A cave.

Dwá'r, n.m. (S. Dwára.) Doors.

Dwá't, n.f. (H. dáwát.) Inkstand. Syn. Mäsájan.

Dyálá, n.m. A play in which fire is burnt.

Dváli, n.f. See Diáli.

Dyanu, v.t. re. To cause to give.

Dyáwar, n.m. dyáwarí, f. He or she whose mother is the nurse to a chief.

Dyár, n.m. Cedar tree.

Dyúwlí, n.f. The fire-fly.

E

É. A termination to nouns and pronouns which denotes the plural; as: Ejlá = this, Ejlé = these. A vocative particle used in addressing anyone; as: Eji oré háňdó, O Sir, come here.

Ebé, adv. Now. Ebé ká karí. What's to be done now? Ebú, adv. Just now. Sé dewá ebú. He has gone just now. Ejá or -u, pro. m.s.; f. -í. This. pl. -é. These.

Éjí, phrase. O Sir, O Madam.

Ejlá or -u, pro. m.s.; f. -i. This one. pl. -é. These ones.

Ék, ad. (H.) One. Múň fábá ek rupoiyá. "I got one rupee." Ekhó, pro. Some.

Eki. See Ek. Eki jane eti khedai. "Send one man here."

Ekí, ad. Only one.

Eki-bári, ad. Once. adv. At one time.

Én, n.m. See Ain.

Erá, ad. See Ishú. Used in Bâghal, Kunihâr and Nálágarh. Eré, phrase. O you. É-ro-lá. "O you Sir." Erká or -u, n.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. This side.

Éru, ad. See Ishu. (Balsan and Madhán.)

Es, pro. m. and f. (1) Him or her. (2) To this. (Also eskhe.) Esí, adv. By this way.

Esrú or -á, pro. m.; f. -í. Of this. pl. -é. Of these. Etai, adv. See Ethi.

Ethi or -á, adv. Here, at this place. Eti or -á, adv. Here, at this place.

Ethya-ágé, adv. Hereafter, in the future.

 \mathbf{F}

Fábnu, v.t. re. (1) To get. (2) To meet; f. -i, pl. -e.

Fáddi, ad. The last.

Fádí, n.m. One whose turn is last in a walnut-game.

Fáfrá, n.m. A kind of coarse corn.

Fá'g, n.m. The Holi festival of the Hindús.

Fággan, n.m. (S. Phálguna.) The 10th Hindú month, corresponding to February.

Fái, n.f. (H. phánsi.) A hang.

Fair, n.f. (E. fire.) The sound of a gun. -karni. To fire.

Faiwtá, n.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. A kind of jackal.

Fákà n.m. A mouthful of roasted grain. -é márne, v.t. re. To chuck roasted grains.

Fakhir, n.m. (H. fakir.) A mendicant.

Fákí, n.f. Complaint.

Fal, n.m. (1) A fruit. (2) The result. (S. fala.)

Fál, fáli, n.m. and f. Vomit. -áwná or -awní, v.i. re. To vomit.

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Falá, n.m. A plank; /. -i. A small plank, pl. -é.

Fálá, n.m. A sheer (of a plough).

Fali, n.f. (1) A bean. (2) A small board.

Faltá, n.m.; f. -i, pl. -e. A small plank. Fan, n.m. (H.) The extended hood of a cobra.

Faná'r, n.m. A cobra.

Fánd, n.f. Subscription. -páni, v.i. re. To subscribe.

Fandá, n.m. (H.) A noose, a snare.

Fáňdki, n.f. A present of edibles.

Fándnu, v.t. re. To divide, to distribute; f. -i, pl. -é.

Fáng, n.m. A slit; pl. -o.

Fang-faráli, a. Cunning, deep.

Fán-in-yán, n.f. A kiss. -leni, v.i. re. To kiss. -deni, v.t. ir. To give a kiss.

Fán-nu, v.t. re. To card (wool).

Far, n.f. The sound of a bird's flight.

Farangí, n.m. A European.

Faráwnu, v.t. re. To cause to slit; f. -i, pl. -é.

Fard, n.f. (H.) A list.

Fard, n.f. Crookedness. -á, ad. Crooked.

Fardú, n.m. A hare.

Fari, n.f. The lungs.

Fark, n.m. (P. farq.) Difference. -panu, v.i. re. To make a difference. -deonu, v.i. re. To differ. -honu, v.i. ir. To be different. -lagnu, v.i. re. To seem different.

Farká, n.m. The lap. -páná, v.t. re. To receive in one's lap.

(Also farkú.)

Farkawnu, v.t. re. To cast, to throw; f. -1, pl. é. Syn. shetnu. Farknu, v.i. re. To throb; f. -1, pl. -é.

Farkuwé, adv. In the lap.

Farnái, n.f. A large saw.

Fárnu, v.t. rc. (H.) To tear, to slit, to break.

Farrátá, n.m. A sound of flying.

Farrú, n.m. A hare.

Fárshí, n.f. (P.) (1) The Persian language. (2) An ironical speech.

Faruwá, n.m. A mattock, a hoe.

Fasháwnu, v.t. re. (1) To cause to entangle; f. -1, pl. -é. (2) To put to trouble.

Fashnu, v.i. re. To entangle, to ensuare, to entrap; f. -i, pl. é. Fat, n.m. The act of cutting off with a sword.

Fá't, n.m. The width of a river.

Fatáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to break; f. -i, pl. -é.

Fat-bái, n.m. One who slays a goat or sheep.

Fatebad, n.f. Prosperity.

Fáthnu, v.t. re. To seize, to put to trouble; f. -i, pl. -é.

Fáti or pháti, n.f. (1) A term used for a group of from 1 to 20 hamlets (used in Kullu). (2) -hundi, ad. f. Broken. Fátnu, v.t. re. To break; f. -i, pl. -é.

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(N.S.)
Fá'tu, n.m. A small bundle of wool or cotton.
Fátu or -a, n.m.; f. 1, pl. -6. Broken, torn.
Fatrálá, n.m. A loud sound.
Fawra, n.m. See Faruwa.
Fefrá, n.m. (H.) The regs.
Fegú, n.m. A fig-fruit. (Also phegú.)
Fegrá, n.m. A fig-fruit. (Also phegrá.)
Fér, n.m. A distance.
Ferá, n.m. Rounding.
Ferá, n.m. A bad turn, a swindle.
Feráwnu, v.t. ir. To cause or allow to walk.
Fernu, v.t. re. (1) To return. (2) To send for a walk; f. -i, pl. -é.
Fetu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Flat. -parnu, v.i. re. To be flat.
     -pánu, v.t. re. To make flat.
Féú, n.m. Burning charcoal. (Also jewtú.)
    give me a burning charcoal. Agirá féwțu dená ji : "Please ur, n.f. (H. far.)
Féwatá, n.m. A kind of jackal.
Féwtu, n.m. A burning charcoal.
Fikar, n.f. (H. fiqr.) Care, anxiety. -parni, v.i. re. To be
    anxious. -lâgni, v.i. re. To feel anxiety. -rákhni or karni,
     v.i. re. To be careful.
Fil, n.m. (1) A snail. (2) -\acute{a}, n.m. A kind of plant.
Filá, n.m. A snail; pl. é.
Fimfri, n.f. A butterfly.
Fim, n.f. (S. ahifena.) Opium.
Fimi, ad. m. and f. sing. and plural. One who takes opium.
Fimshu, n.m. A small ulcer.
Fincháwnu, v.t. re. To cause to rub or press.
Finchnu. v.t. re. To rub, to press; f. -1, pl. é.
Finchwanu, v.i. re. To be pinched; f. -i, pl. -é.
Finglá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. One who walks crookedly.
Fini, n.f. The heel.
Firang, n.f. Venereal disease, a chancre.
Firáwnu, v.t. re. (1) To turn up. (2) To cause to return.
Firg, n.f. Chancre. - awani or lágni, v.i. re. To suffer from
    chancre.
Firi, con. Again. adv. Afterwards. (Also firé.)
Firkan, n.m. Turning round; f. i-.
Firknu, v. To come back.
Firnu, v.t. and i. re. (1) To return. (2) To whirl, f. -i, pl. é.
  (3) To wander, f. -i, pl. -ė.
Firwan, ad. m.; f. in, pl. -én. Returnable.
Fisälnu, v.i. re. To slip.
Fishknu, v.i. re. (See Fisälnu.)
Fittemu, a. phrase. A curse for a wicked deed.
Fittesúl, phrase. A curse for the wicked manner of doing something.
Fofá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Having no strength.
Foká or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. Empty.
Forá or -u, n.m.; f. -i. pl. é. An ulcer, a blister (H.).
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Foráwnu, v.t. re. To cause to break; f. -i, pl. é. Fornu, v.t. re. (H.) To break, f. -i, pl. é. F5't, n.f. (1) A kind of melon. (2) Dissension. -páni, v.i. re. To sow dissension. Fóz, n.f. (P. fauz.) An army. Fréj, frejó, adv. The day before yesterday. Frusht, n.f. (U. fursat.) Leisure. Fukáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to burn or to cremate; f.-i, pl.-é. Fuknáwlá, n.m. A blow-pipe; a bamboo cylinder used to blow up fire. Fukņu, v.t. re. To burn, to cremate; f. -i, pl. -é. Fukr, n.f. Blowing up the fire. -deni or láni, v.i. ir. To blow up the fire. Fúl, n.m. (H.) (1) A flower. (2) Bones taken to the Ganges. (Syn. Asthu.) Fulá, n.m. A cataract, an eye disease. Fuláwnu, v.t. re. To cause to bloom; f. -i, pl. é. Fulli, n.f. See Fulá. Fulikarnu, v.i. re. To allow to bloom: f-i, pl. -é. Fulnu, v.i. re. (1) To bloom. (2) To be aged; f.-i, pl. -é. Fulru, n.m. (1) A floweret. (2) The flower of a fruit. Fungshi, n.f. An ulcer, a blister. Fúru, n.m. The tail of a turban. Fusá n.m. See Dhúwá. Fusi, n.f. See Dhui. Fút, n.f. Disunion, dissension. Futáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to differ in opinion. Futnu, v.t. re. (1) To break. (2) To burst; f. -i, pl. é.

 \mathbf{G}

Gaa, n.m. A kind of big lizard. (2) Sowing of vegetable -láne, v.i. re. To sow vegetables. Gá'b, n.m. Pregnancy. Gabru, n.m. A young man, pl. -o. Gábú, n.m. A lamb. Gachhyáwnu, v.t. re. To string. Gáchi, n./. The waist. -bánni, v.i. re. To tie up the waist, gird one's loins. Gáchiyé (phrase). With a girdle, girt. Gachrornu, v.t. re. To agitate; f. -i, pl. -é. Gádá, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. Deep. Gádé-khánu, v.t. re. To trouble much; f. -i, pl. -é. Gádar, n.m. A kind of marriage observed by low-caste people. Gadáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to fight; f. -i, pl. é. Gáddi, n.f. A load of hay or leaves for cattle. Gádhá, n.m. (H. gadhá.) An ass, a donkey.

Gadhálnu, v.t. re. To melt on a fire: f. -i, pl. é.

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Gadi, n.f. A load of grass; also Gádká; f. -í, pl. é.

Gádi, n.f. (H. gaddi.) (1) Throne. -deni, v.i. ir. To instal. (2) A shepherd.

Gadijánu, v.i. ir. To be fought; f.-i, pl. é.

Gádnu, v.t. re. To throw in.

Gadnu, v.t. re. (1) To quarrel. (2) to fight; f-i, pl. é.

Gáde-thagnu, v.t. re. To cheat unmercifully. -jhángnu, v.t. re. To kill.

Gádrí, n.f. pl. A kind of worm that lives in multitudes in a damp place.

Gaff, ad. (H.) See Báklá. -u, n.m. A bribe.

Gágar or gágr. n.f. (H.) A metal water-vessel.

Gáhan, or gá'n, n.m. A harrow, with 8 or 10 teeth, drawn by oxen, used for loosening the soil round young corn. (Dandrálá in Kángrá.)

Gáhlu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Muddy, dirty.

Gáhlu gáhlu bahijá, Nimlu nimlu rahi já.

'Dirty water flows away, Clear water remains."

Gain, gainí, n.m. and f. The sky. -rá-golá, n.m. A thunderbolt. -rá-jyá-golá, n.m. Like a thunder-bolt.

Gaj, n.m. (H.) A ramrod. Gájnu, v.t. re. To sound:

Gá'k, n.m. (S. Gráhāka, H. gáhak.) A purchaser.

Ga'l, n.m. (H.) (1) The cheek. (2) n./. An ill name, a curse.

Galà, n.m. (S. Gala, H. galá.) The throat. Galgal, n.m. A kind of long citron.

Gáli, n.f. Ill names. -deni, v.t. re. To call ill names. -e-bhándnu, v.t. re. To curse.

Galim, n.m. (P. ganim.) An enemy.

Galiyá, ad. m. Idle, unfit.

Galnu, v.i. re. (1) To melt. (2) To be dissolved; f. -1, pl. -6. (3) To be destroyed.

Gálnu, v.t. re. To cause to melt or destroy; f. -1, pl. -é.

Galti, n.f. (P. galti.) A mistake.

Gá'lu, ad. See Gáhlú.

Gam, n.m. (P. gam.) Patience, grief, sorrow. -khánu, v.i. re. To have patience.

Gampáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to bear or have patience. 1. -i. pl. -e.

Gampnu, v.t. re. (1) To bear, to undergo. (2) v.i. re. To have patience. f. -i, pl. -e. Gampáwnu. Casual v. re. To be patient.

Gan, n.m. (1) A swarm. (2) The name of a village deity. Ganá, n.m.; pl. é. (H. gahná.) An ornament. -tu, n.m. A

small ornament or ornaments.

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Ganáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to reckon. (2) To cause to count; f. -i, pl. -é. Gá'nch, n.t. Dishonour, disrespect. Gánd, n.m. Anus. (Also gándi.) Gándi-jánu, v.t. ir. To let him go. Gándh, n.f. A bad smell. Gándhi, n.m. (H. gandhi.) A perfumer. Gane, n.m. pl. (1) Sugarcane, ad. pl. Thick. Ganes, n.m. (S. Ganesha.) The deity called Ganesh. Gángá, n.f. (S. Gangá.) The river Ganges. Gani-karnu, v.t. ir. To count, to enumerate. Ganj, n.m. (H.) (1) A mass, a heap. (2) A grain market. Ganj, n.f. Michælmas daisy. Gánná or-u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Thick, coarse. Gan-nu, v.t. re. To count, to reckon; f. -i, pl. -é. Gant, n.f. The next world. Gánth, n.f. A knot. -parni, v.i. re. (1) To be entangled. (2) To be hard. Gantháwnu, v.t. re. To cause to repair; f. -i, pl. -é. Gánthnu, v.t. re. To mend, to repair; f. -i, pl. -é. Gánthí, n.f. A bundle. -de-pánu, v.t. re. To pack. Gánu, v.t. re. (H. gáná.) To sing; f. -i, pl. -ė. Gá'nu, v.t. re. To do farmyard work. Gáň-uňká, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. Before, in front. Sé gaňuňka dewí guwá. "He has gone before." Gáňw, n.m. (S. Gráma, H. gáňw.) A village, a town. Gáňwrá, n.m. See Gáoňrá. Gáňwúň, n.m. The future, the time to come. -ká or ku, ad. m.; f. -1, pl. -é. Before, in front. Gáňwrá, n.m. A hamlet. Gáonrá, n.m. A hamlet, a small village. (Also gánwrá.) Gap, n.f. Gossip. -márni, v.i. re. To talk a great deal, to run on. Gapóriá, ad. m. Talkative. Gappi, ad. m. One who gossips.

Gá'r. n.m. (S. Angára.) Burning charcoal.

Gárá, n.m. (H.) Kneaded clay, mortar.

Gará, n.m.; pl.-é. Maize plants heaped at one place to dry. -láná, v.i. re. To heap the maize plants.

Garam, ad. (H.) Warm, hot. -karnu, v.t. ir. To make warm.

Garáwnu, v.t. re. (See Gudáwnu.)

Gard, n.f. (H.) Dust.

Gardan, n.f. (H.) The neck. (Also gelni.)

Garh, n.m. A fort. -i, n.f. A fortress. -iá-negí, n.m. One in command of a hill fort (Kullu).

Gari, n.f. Cocoa.

Garj, n.f. (P. garaz.) Need, necessity. -paṛṇi, v.t. re. To be in need of or to be needy.
Garji-jaṇu, v.i. ir. To roar; f. -i, pl. -é.

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Garinu, v.i. re. To roar.

Garká, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Heavy, weighty. (Syn. Garú, Garuwá.)

Garká, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Heavy, weighty. (Also garu.) Gark-jánu, v.t. re. To waste; f. -i, pl. -é.

Garmi, n.f. (H.) Heat, warmness.

Garnu, v.t. re. See Gadnu.

Gárthá, n.m. (S. Angáraka.) A small burning coal.

Garu, ad. m. See Garká. (Alike in number and gender.)

Gáru, n.m. (H. garuwá.) A deity's waterpot.

Garuwá, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Heavy, weighty.

Garuwá, n.m. (H.) A water-jar.

Garwi, n.f. A small water-pot.

Gás, n.m. (S. Grása.) A mouthful, a morsel. Syn. Grá, Gráh, or Gráss.

Gásbél, n.f. (S. ákáshabela.) The air-creeper.

Gaski, n.f. A heavenly nymph.

Gat, n.f. (S. Gati.) (1) The last duties of a deceased. (2) A tune for a guitar. -karni, v.i. re. To perform the last duties. -banáwni, v.t. re. To beat severely. -satláni, v.i. re. To have the last duties performed.

Garbh, n.m. (S. Garbha.) Pregnancy. Proverb:

Sargó rau garbhó ru kun jáno?
"Who knows of rain and birth?"

Gatáká, n.m. (H.) Swallowing. Gateru, n.m. A ghost. (Bhajjí.)

Gati, n.f. A small stone, found among grain. -chungni, v.i. re.

To pick stones from grain. -ba ni, v.t. re. (1) To throw small stones at. (2) -mátikarni, v. To make a union.

Gauj, n.m. A yard.

Gaulá, n.m. The road by which the cattle leave the houses to go out for grazing. It is a big road in front of a village and runs between fences.

Gáúň, ad. Forward.

Gaunt, or gaunch, n.m. (S. Gomútra.) Cow-urine.

Gaunch. See Gaunt.

Gaw, n.f. A cow. -rá, n.f. A weakly cow. (Also <math>gorú.)

Gechá or $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ -, ad. m.; f.-i, pl.-é. That which is sown early.

Gelá, n.m. A large trunk, a log; f.-i. A small trunk; pl.-é.

Gelni, n.f. The neck.

Gelrá, n.m. The throat or windpipe.

Gendá, n.m. A kind of flower. Marigold.

Gerá, n.m. Giddiness.

Gerú, n.m. (H.) (1) Red ochre. -wá, (2) ad. Of ochre colour.

Gethá, n.m.; n.f. -i, pl. -é. A hearth, a fire-pot.

Gethi, n.f. The fireplace, the hearth. -de-panu, v.t.re. To burn.

Getrá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. See Gechá.

Géun, n.m. (S. Godhuma, H. gehun.) Wheat. (Also giun.)

[, 4.] Geńnwan, ad. m.; -win, f. -wen, pl. Of the wheat colour. Ghá, n.m. (S. Ghása, H. ghás.) Grass. (hach-ghach, n.f. Bothering. -láni, v.t. re. To bother. Ghächról, n.f. Bothering. -láni, v.i. re. To bother, to linger. Ghághri, n.f. (H. ghaghrá.) A gown. Ghái, n.m. A grass-cutter. -án-ni, v.t. re. To put to trouble. karni, v.i. ir. To act prudently. -awni, v.i. re. To be in trouble. Ghain, n.f Grass land. -ti, n.f. A piece of grass land. Ghaini, n.t. Grass lands. Ghálnu, v.t. re. To dissolve. f. -i, v.i. re. To be loyal; pl. -é. Ghámrnu, v.i. re. To be unhappy. Ghá'n, n.f. So much grain as can be roasted in a vessel. Ghaná, n.m. A small wall. -dená, v.i. ir. To build a wall. Ghandáli, n.f. See kacháwlí (used in Biláspur and Kángrá). Ghándi, n.f. (H. ghantí.) A bell. Ghándú, n.m. The throat. Ghangheri, n.f. A kind of vegetable. Ghá'nu, v.t. re. To kill, to slay, to put to death; f. -i, pl. -ė. Ghánṭá, n.m. (H. ghantá.) A large bell. -deṇá, v.i. re. To give nothing. Ghaprálá, n.m. A plunging sound. Gha'r, n.m. (See Ghaur.) Ghá'r, n.m.; f. -í. A precipice. Ghará, n.m. (S. Ghata.) An earthen water-pot. Ghárá, n.m. A waterfall. Gharáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to manufacture; f. -i, pl. -é. Gharchí, n.f. Property, an estate. Gháré, n.m. pl. Curves. Gharí, n.f. See Gharchí. Proverb: Gharí ro muňhtá ápnái dashi: "One has to show his own estate and face." Ghárí, n.f. A precipice. -parnu, v.i. re. To fall from a preci-Ghari-ro-khánu, v.t. re. To harass, to greatly trouble; f. -i, Gharnu, v.t. re. To mend, to make, to manufacture; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghartu, n.m. A small dwelling. (From H. ghar; a house.) Ghartu, n.m. A family or its member (used in Bashahr). Gharu, ad. Homely, household, relating to a house. Gháru, n.m. A term for the men on corvée work. Ghasáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to be worn off. Ghäsér, n.f. A kind of play. Ghasi-jánu, v.i.ir. To be worn off. Ghásni, n.f. See Gháini. Ghasnu, v.i. re. To wear off; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghassá, n.m. A beating, crushing. -dená, v.t. re. To beat. Ghát, n.f. Revenge. Ghá't, n.m. A quay.

Ghátá, n.m. (H.) Decrease, decay, loss.

.... Ghatánu or ghatáwnu, v.t. re. (H. ghatáná.) To deduct; f. í. Ghatnu, v.i. re. (H. ghatná.) To be less; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghátú, ad. Intending to revenge. (Alike in both genders.) Ghatrú, n.m. See Ghat or Ghaut. Ghaun, n.m. Kneading. Ghau-nu, v.t. re. To knead; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghaur, n.m. (H. ghar.) Home, house, a dwelling. Ghaur, n.m. A heap, a mass. -lágne, v.i. re. To be in heaps. Ghaut, n.m. A stone-mill. -pishnu, v. t. re. To grind in a stone mill. Gháw, n.m. (H.) A hurt, a blister. Ghengná, n.m. One who collects clarified butter as the revenue for grass lands. (Also ghyángná.) Ghé'p, n.m. Goitre or bronchocele. -i, n.m. and f. One who has the goitre. (Also ghepu.) Ghér, n.m. Circumference. Gherá, n.m. (1) See Gher. (2) Surrounding. Gherá-ferá, n.m. A visit. Gheráwnu, v.t. re. To cause to surround; f. -i, pl. -ė. Ghér-fér, n.m. A response. -denu, v.i. re. To respond. Ghernu, v.t. re. To surround; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghesá, n.m. A fall, a bruise, a crush. Ghesáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to bruise or crush; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghesnu, v.t. re. To crush, to bruise; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghetá, n.m. A coarse neck. Ghéur, n.m. (H. ghewar.) A kind of sweetmeat. Ghiárí, ghyárí, n.f. An earthen pot for clarified butter. Ghiártu, ghyártu, n.m. A small earthen pot for clarified butter. Ghich-pich, n.f. A great crowd. -honi or -machni, v.i. re. To be much crowded. -karni, v.i. ir. To crowd. -hatáwni, v.i. re. To disperse a crowd. Ghín, n.f. Compassion, tenderness. Ghin-nu, v.t. re. To buy, to purchase; f. -1, pl. -é. (Basháhr.) Ghin, n.f. (1) Sympathy. (2) Love. -deni, v.t. re. To love. Ghindáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to spoil; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghin-dardó, n.f. (1) An embrace. (2) Sympathy. Ghindnu, v.t. re. To spoil, to make useless; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghírá, n.m. (H. ghí-ghará.) A vessel of clarified butter. Ghiri-áwnu, v.i. re. To be surrounded with; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghiri-jánu, v.i. re. To be surrounded; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghirnu, v.i. re. To be surrounded; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghiri-firi-ro, ad. In a wandering manner. Ghisáwnu, v.t. re. See Ghasáwnu. Ghisnu, v.i. re. To slip down; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghiú, n.m. (H. ghi.) Clarified butter. Ghiyá-tori, n.f. A kind of vegetable. Ghmáw, n.m. (H. ghumúw.) A winding path. Ghmér, n.m. Giddiness.

Gho'ch, n.f. The act of troubling. -á-gháchi, n.f. Troubling again and again. Ghochi-marnu, v.t. re. To give trouble; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghochnu, v.t. re. To trouble, to stir about; f. -i, pl. -é. Gho'l, n.m. A kind of wild goat. -an, n.f. Wild she-goat. or -tu. A wild kid; -ti, f. Ghol-matho'l, n.m. The act of mismanaging. Gholnu, v.t. re. To dissolve, to mix into water; f. i, pl. é. Gholtó, n.m. A pony (Basháhr). Ghorá, n.m. A horse. f.-í. A mare. -ú, n.m. A pony. Ghorlú, n.m. See Gholtó. Ghrá'ru, n.m. pl. Snoring. -dené, v.i. ir. To snore. Ghráshni, n.f. (S. Grihapravesha.) The ceremony of entering a new house. Gháwrú, n.m. See gráwrú. Ghrá't, n.m. (H. ghata.) A water mill to grind grain. Ghrátiyá, n.m. One who has a water mill. Ghrául, n.m. A kind of bell (like a dish) used in Hindu temples. Ghryaun, n.f. A tune played at a village deity's dance. Ghryaunu or ghryaun-láni, v.i. re. To play the tune called Ghryaun. Ghugí, or Ghuggi. See Ghugti. Ghugnu, v.i. re. To bark of a dog. Ghugti, n.f. A dove. -láni, v.i. re. To play. Ghul, n.f. A small shed in a farmyard to keep grain in when it rains. Ghuláwnu, v.t. re. To cause to fight or wrestle; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghulnu, v.i. re. To fight, to wrestle; f. -1, pl. e. Ghúm, n.m. A long way. Ghumghumáňdi, ad. f. Fragrant. Ghumáw, n.m. Turning. Ghumáwnu, v.t. re: To cause to turn. Ghumnu, v.i. re. To turn back; f. -i, pl. é. Ghun, n.m. An insect that destroys timber. Ghund, n.m. A veil. -karnu, v.i. re. To put on a veil. Ghunghru, n.m. pl. Small bells used by dancers. Ghurkáw. n.m. The act of threatening, a threat. Ghurkáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to threaten; f. -i. pl. é. Ghurki, n.f. (H. ghurki.) A threat. Ghurknu, v.t. re. (H. ghurkná.) To threaten ; f. -i. pl. é Ghurí-ró, adv. Strongly. Ghurnu, v.t. re. To gird up; f. -i, pl. -é. Ghusáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to enter; f.-i, pl. é. Ghusernu, v.t. re. To throw in; f. -i, pl. é. Ghushu, n.m. A kind of game in which there are two parties of men: each party taking in their hands small bundles of straw alight on both sides, throw them at the other party.

This takes place on certain days of October. Ghusnu, v.i. re. To enter, to be admitted; f.i, pl. é.

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Ghusrnu, v.i. re. See the preceding. Ghút, n.f. The act of swallowing.

Ghutawnu, v.t. re. To cause to swallow up.

Ghutnu, v.t. re. To swallow up; f. -i, pl. 6.

Ghwarnu, v.t. re. To open, to uncover, to remove a lid; f.-i, pl. é.

Ghyángná, n.m. See Ghengná.

Ghyánná, n.m. A fireplace.

Ghyári, n.f. An earthen pot; used to divide clarified butter.

Ghyú, n.m. See Ghiú.

Gi, n.f. Gums of the teeth.

Gi', n. A. kind of tune. -láni, v.i. re. To play a particular tune. (Also -bájni or -bajáwni.)

Giáwan, n.m. A kind of tax (used in Kuthár State).

Gich-pich, n.f. See Ghich-pich.

Gijáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to accustom.

Gijnu, v.i. re. To accustom, to practise; f. -i, pl. é.

Gil, n.j. A term for the 16 days, the last week of Ashar and 1st week of Sawan, respectively. Trees planted during this fortnight flourish and flower well.

Gilá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. é. Wet. -karnu, v.t. ir. To wet. -honu, v.i. ir. To be wet.

Gillar, n.m. See Ghép.

Gíň-úň, n. (S. Godhúma, P. gandam.) Wheat.

Gináwnu, v.t. re. See Ganáwnu.

Gindá, n.m. A tom-cat.

Gindu, n.m. (S. Kanduka or Genduka). A play-ball. -khelnu, v.i. re. To play with a ball.

Gin-nu, v.t. re. See Gan-nu.

Gint, n.f. An account. (From Hindí gintí.)

Girá-giri, n.f. A hue and cry. -máchni v.i re. To be great noisy. Giráwnu, v.t. re. To spoil, to throw away. (From Hindi giráná.)

Girdé-girnu, v.i. re. To turn round; f-i, pl. é.

Giri-firi-áwnu, v.i. re. To take a walk; f. -1, pl. -é.

Giri-jánu, v.i. ir. To fall down; f. -i, pl. -é.

Girk-janu, v.i. ir. To be wasted, to be given away for nothing. Girnu, v.i. re. (1) To fall, to slip down; f.-1, pl. é. (2) To turn.

Glá'b, n.m. (H. guláb.) A rose. -i. adj. Rosy.

Glá'f, n.m. (H. giláf.) A cover (of a pillow or quilt, etc.).

Glain, n.m. A kind of pine tree.

Gial, n.m. (H. guldl.) (1) Red powder. (2) The China root, madder (majîth).

Glá'm, n.f. (H. lágám.) A bridle.

Glás, or Gláss, n.m. (H. gilás.) A cup, a tumbler.

Gláú, n.m. A spider.

Gle'l, n.f. A pellet-bow. -báni, v.i. re. To shoot with a pellet bow.

Glistá, n.m. (P. bálisht.) A span.

Góbar, n.m. (H.) or gobr. (1) Cow-dung. (2) Manure.

Gobrái, n.f. The act of manuring the land. -láni, v.i. re. To manure land.

Gobraush, n. f. A heap of manure.

Gobrilá, n.m. An insect found in manure, a chafer.

Gochhá, n.m. (H. angochhá.) A towel.

Go'd, n.m. The lap. -laná, v.t. ir. To adopt a son.

Godi, n.f. The lap. -laná, v.t. ir. To take in the lap.

Gódi, n.f. A kind of wild edible root.

Gokhru, n.m. (1) A kind of ear-rings. (2) A kind of medicine.

Gol, ad. (H.) Round. -chán-nu, v.t. re. To make round.

Golá, n.m. Thunderbolt.

Gólakh, n.m. (1) A fund. (2) The fund out of which alms were given (used in Mandí).

Golî, n.m. pl. (1) Apes. (2) A bullet. -báhṇi, v.i. re. To shoot a bullet

Góň, n.m. Desire, wish, pleasure. -dekhná, v.i. re. To go one's own way.

Gónch or Gont, n.m. (S. gomútra.) Cow's urine.

Goncháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to make water (used of cattle only).

Gonchnu, v.i. re. To make water (used of cattle only).

Góntrálá, n.m. The naming ceremony of a child.

Go'r, n.m. A lizard (goh is a kind of big lizard, also found in the Simla Hills).

Gornu, v.t. re. To weed, f. -i, pl. -é.

Goru, n.m. Cattle.

Goshthá, n.m. A cake of dry cow-dung.

Got, n.m. (S. gotra.) Parentage, lineage; stock (of a family).

Gotá, n.m. (H.) A dip, a dive. -kháná, v.i. re. To miss, to err. -márná, v.i.re. To take a dip, to dive.

Gotá, n.m. (H.) Lace. -láná, v.i. re. To lace.

Gothî, n.f. Blame. -láni, v.t. re. To blame.

Gothú, n.m. A wild animal.

Goti, n.f. Odd. -noti, n.f. Odd and even, a kind of game.

Gotnu, v.t. re. To bar, to prevent from going; f. -i, pl. -é.

Grá or gráh, n.m. A morsel, a mouthful. -laná, v.i. re. To take a morsel. (S. grása.)

Gráchá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. See Getá.

Grá'nu, v.t. re. (1) To collect revenue. (2) To realize; f. -1, pl. -6.

Gráss, n.m. See Grá.

Gráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to weed; f. -i, pl. -é.

Gráoň, n.m. See Gáňw (used in Kullu and elsewhere).

Grawru, n.m. A little bird. (Alike in singular and plural.)

Greut, n.m. A long way, turning here and there.

Gréwanu, v.t. re. To turn back; f. -i, pl. -é.

Grhaiwan, n.m. A tune played to make a deity dance. -lani, v.i. re. To play the deity's dancing tune.

Grhaiwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow a village deity to move or dance.

Grib, ad. (H. garib.) Poor, helpless.

(friknu, v.i. re. To roar (of thunder). Also gariknu.

Gró or Grau, n.m. pl. The nine planets, which are: (1) The sun. (2) The moon. (3) Mars. (4) Mercury. (5) Jupiter. (6) Venus. (7) Saturn. (8) Ráhu. (9) Ketu. (From Sanskrit Graha.)

Grón or graun, n.m. (S. grahana.) An eclipse. -lágnu, v.i. re. To appear, of an eclipse. -dekhna, v.i. re. To witness an eclipse.

 G_{ii} , n.m. (S.) Excrement. (Also khé.)

Gubar or Gubr, n.m. See Gobar or gobr.

Gubrái, n.f. See Gobrái.

Gubrílá, n.m. See Gobrílá.

Gudlá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Sweet, tasty.

Gufá, n.f. (S.) A cave or grotto scooped out of solid rock.

Gújá or gujjá, n.m. See Khísá.

Gujrán, n.f. Livelihood.

Gujráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to pass; f. -i, pl. -é.

Gujrnu, v.i. re. To pass away, to die; f. -i, pl. -é.

Gul or Kul, n.f. A small channel.

Gulá, n.m. A comb of Indian corn (makki or chhalli).

Gulchhu, n.m. The flesh of the buttocks.

Gule, n.m. pl. Grain (used in Basháhr State).

Gum-honu, v.i. ir. To disappear; f. -1, pl. -é.

Gun, n.m. (S. guṇa.) Obligation. -mán-ṇá, v.i. re. To be obliged.

Guná, n m. (P. gunáh.) A crime, a fault, a mistake.

Gundáwnu, v.t. re To cause or allow to knead or braid.

Gundnu, v.t. re. (1) To knead. (2) To braid; f. -i, pl. -é.

Gunjó, n.m. pl. Moustache.

Gun lágná, v.i. re. To be indebted.

Gunth, n.m. pl. -o. Pony.

Gúr, n.m. (H.) Brown sugar.

Guri, n.f. A knot, knob.

Gusa, n.m. (P. gussah.) Anger, indignation. -karná, v.i. ir.

To become angry or indignant.

Guthá, n.m. (S. angushtha, the thumb.) (H. angútha.) The thumb. -dashná, v.i. re. To deny. -láná, v.i. re. To put the thumb, e.g., on a deed. -i, n.f. A finger.

Guthrá, n.m. See Guthá. -i, n.f. A finger.

Guwá or Gowá, v. The past tense of the verb jánu, to go, went.

Gwá, n.m. (H. gawáh.) (1) A witness, also (2) evidence.

Gwáchi-jánu, v.i. ir. To be lost; f. -i, pl. -é.

Gwáchnu, v.t. re. To lose. v.i. re. To be lost; f. -i, pl. -é.

Gwái, n.f. (H. gawáhí.) (1) Evidence. (2) A witness. -deni, v.i. ir. To give evidence.

Gwáli, n.f. (1) A shepherdess. (2) A kind of insect, green in colour and long in size, like a grasshopper.
Gwá'r, ad. Uncivilized, ignorant, a fool. (H. gaňwár.)

H

Háchhá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. (H. achchhá.) Good. Adv. Well.

Háchhe, n.m. pl. A kind of thorny plant that bears edible berries.

Há'd or hádki, n.m. or f. (H. haddí.) A bone.

Há'd, n.f. Conversation. -láni, v.t. re. To converse. Cf. hâdi.

 $\text{H\'{a}'}\dot{q}, n.m. pl. Bones.$

Hadd, n.f. A limit, boundary. -honi, v.i. ir. To get beyond all bounds.

Hádi, n.f. Conversation. -láni, v.i. re. To converse.

Hádri-láni, v.t. re. To converse.

Háe, int. Oh, alas, ah!

Hagáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to go to stool; f.-i, pl.-c.

Hagni, n.f. Anus.

Hagnu, v.i. re. (H. hagná.) To go to stool.

Hail, n. f. (pronounced hel.) A hard task, to be done with the help of many persons. -deni, v.i. ir. To work collectively. Haingo. A form of address to a relative, meaning, O my

dear.'

Hainlá or hainré. A form of address: 'O you.' Hájar, ad. (P. házir.) Present.

Há'k, n.f. A halloo. deni, v.t. ir. To halloo.

Hakáwnu, v.t. re. (H. hakáná.) To cause or allow to drive; f.-í.

Háknu, v.t. re. To drive away; f. -i, pl. -é.

Halawnu, v.t. re. To shake (H. hiláná); f. -í, pl. -é.

Hal-bái, n.m. One who ploughs, a ploughman.

Haljé, n.f. (H. haldí.) Turmeric.

Halkáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to shake; f. -i, pl. -é.

Halká or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. (H. halká.) Light, not weighty. Hállá, n.m. (H.) A noise, a hue and cry. -páná, v.i. re. To make a noise. [sain.)

Halmandí, n.m. See Blair. (Used in Basháhr and Kumhár-

Hálnu, v.i. re. To shake, to tremble.

Hálo, n.m. A kind of greens called in Hindí, chamchúr.

Halsh or -1, n.f. The long piece of wood in a plough.

Haltu, n.m. A kind of small plough.

Halwá, n.m. (H. haluwá.) A kind of cake.

Hámbai, adv. 'Yes,' or 'very well.'

Hámeň, pro. pl. We. -íň, f.

Hamyá, n.f. Enmity, opposition. -karni, v.i. ir. To oppose. Hán, adv. Yes. -ná, adv. Yes or no. -karni, v.i. ir. To say

yes.

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Háná, n.m. (S. háni.) Loss, injury. -jáná, v.i. ir. To sustain

Hánd, n.f. A walk, travel. -i, n.f. An earthen cooking vessel.

Hándi-ná balu (phrase). I cannot walk.

Handolá, n.m. See Chandól.

Hanjar, n.m. (H. hazár.) A thousand. Hans, n.m. (S. Hansa.) A goose.

Hánsilí, n.f. (P. hásil.) Revenue or tax. (Used in Kullú.)

Har, n.m. A flood. - awna, v.i. re. To wash off.

Há[']r, n.f. (S. Hára.) (1) Abduction. (2) A garland.

Hár-karn, n.m. The sum paid, in addition to the marriage expenses, by a man who abducts another man's wife, to her husband. (Used in the Dhámí State.)

Há'ré, adv. Kindly. -karne, v.i. ir. To entreat.

Hará or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. (H.) Green.

Hárá, n.m. (1) A small field. (2) A trial. -karná, v.t. ir. To

Haráwnu, v.t. re. (H. harwáná.) To cause or allow to defeat. Haráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to flow away; f. -i, pl. -é.

Hargat, n.f. (A. harkat.) Injury, loss, fault. -karni, v.i. ir. To make a mistake.

Hari-jánu, v.i. ir. To be washed off; f. -1, pl. -é.

Hariyágá, n.m. An allowance for the Rájá's kitchen. (Used in Mandi.)

Harjá, n.m. (P. harz.) Mischief, injury. -honá, v.i. ir. To be lost.

Harn, n.m. (S. Harina.) A buck. f.-i. A doe.

Hárnu, v.t. re. To fail; f. -í, pl. -é. (H. hárná.)

Hárnu, v.t. re. To try, to examine, to scrutinise; f.-i. pl.-é.

Har-r or har-rí. A medicinal fruit. Yellow or Chebulic myrobalan (Terminalia chebula): seven varieties of this are distinguished. (From Sanskrit harítakí.)

Har-ri, n.f. The wooden pipe of a hugga. Haryáwul, n.m. (H. hariáwal.) Meadows.

Hasáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to laugh; f.-i, pl.-é.

Hási, n.f. (S. Hásya.) Laughter. -chhutni, v.i. re. To laugh. -karni, v.i. ir. To laugh at.

Hásí-khelí-ro láné, v.t. re. pl. To beguile the time with pleasure.

Hasli, n.f. An ornament worn on the neck by women.

Hasnu, v.i. re. To smile, to laugh. (From Hindí hansná.)

Hatáwnu, v.t. re. (H. hatáná.) To cause or allow to prevent.

Hatáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to return; to prohibit.

Háth or hátth, n.m. (S. hasta.) A hand.

Hath, n.m. (S. hatha.) Insistence. -karná, v.i. re. To insist.

Hathángé, n.m. pl. Commutation for begar or corvée (Biláspúr). Háthar, ad. f. A cow or she-buffalo, which only allows one

person to milk her. Hathaurá, n.m. (H.) A hammer.

Hathi, ad. Obstinate.

Hátho-joríro, c.p. With joined hands.

Háthru, n.m. pl. Hands. (H. háth.)

Hatnu, v.i. re. To turn back; f. -i, pl. -é.

Hatnu, v.i. re. (1) To return, to come back. (2) To be off.

Hatólí, v.f. She will turn back.

Hatyá, n.f. (S.) The act of killing. -lani, v.i. ir. To cause to trouble. -karni, v.t. ir. To kill.

Hátth, n.m. See Háth.

Háttí, n.f. (H. hattí.) A shop. -karni, v.i. ir. To open a shop.

Haul, n.m. (S. Hala.) A plough. -bánu, v.i. re. To plough.

Haunslá, n.m. (H. hausilá.) Ambition, desire, capacity.

Hawá, n.f. (H.) The air, wind.

Házrí, n.m. (P.) An attendant. -ká, n.m. A term for a free grant in lieu of service (used in Mandi).

Hegá, n.m. Carefulness.

Hekrí, n.f. (H.) Boasting, insistence. -karni, v.i. ir. To insist.
 Hé'!, n.f. A sacrifice of a goat or sheep. -deni, v.i. ir. To offer a goat sacrifice.

Helá, n.m. A special begâr or corvée leviable for repairs to roads or buildings, and on special occasions, such as a wedding or death in the chief's family.

Heli, n.f. Wisdom, activity.

Herá, n.m. Game, shikár, hunting. -láná or -karná, v.i. re. and ir. To go on a shooting excursion. -i. n.m. A shikárí, a shooter.

Hé'r-fér, n.m. An answer, a reply. -dená, v.i. ir. To reply.

Hernu, v.t. re. To work; /. -i, pl. -é.

Heru, adv. Perhaps. -lá, v. Look here!

Hesr-láṇá, v.i. re. To chant a song in union (by all persons carrying a heavy load, or moving a heavy mass) in order to keep time. [time.

Hessá, n.m. The cry of a number of persons at work at one Hé't, n.m. (S. Hita.) Affection. -láná, v.i. re. To be affectionate.

Hethé, adv. Down. -páná, v.i. re. To spread a bed (used in Bhajji State).

Hethi, adv. By the lower way (used in the Bhajji State).

Hethla, ad. m.; f. -1, pl. -6. Lower.

Hiáli, n.f. Supper (used in Keonthal).

Hichhawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to promise or agree.

Hichhnu, v.t. re. To promise, to agree; f. -1, pl. -é.

Hichki, n.f. (H.) See Dhiki.

Hij or hijo or hijau, adv. Yesterday, the past day.

Híj-bhyánsri, adv. Yesterday morning. (Also hijo-bhyánsri.)

Híj-byále or hijo-byále. Last evening, yesterday evening.

Hijku or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Yesterday's, of yesterday.

Hik, n.f. The liver, the chest or throat.

Hilan or hillan, n.m. See Bhainchal (used in Bilaspur and Kangra).

[N.S.]

Himat, n.f. (P. himmat.) Courage. -hárni, v.i. re. To dishearten.

Hindné, n.m. pl. The legs of a quadruped.

Híng, n.f. (S. Hingu.) See Sundhá.

Hini, ad. f. Decaying, decreasing.

Hin-né, n.m. pl. See Hindné.

Hír, n.m. pl A kind of wild fruit.

Hiyáw, n.m. (H.) Courage. -áwná, v.i re. To be courageous.

Hiyé-lánu, v.t. re. To embrace; f.-í, pl.-é.

Hochhá, ad. m; f. -i, pl. -é. Short. -jáná, v.i. ir. To fall short.

Hoi-jánu, v.i. ir. To happen, to become; f. -í, pl. -é.

Hokļá or -u, ad. m.; f. i, pl. -é. Lisping.

Holí, n.f. (S. Holiká.) The Holi festival. -khelni, v.i. re. To enjoy the Holi festival.

Holi, v. '(She) may be.'

Homeň, humeň, v.f.t. lst p. pl. We will be. In f. Homíň, humíň.

Honi, n.f. The act of taking place. As Honi hoi-lani. "That which is to happen will happen."

Honu, v.i. ir. To be, to become, to take place; f. -i, pl. -é.

Hór, pro. Other. -ié. By the others.

Hor, con. (1) And. (2) ad. Else. Hor ká bolai?" What else do you say?" (3) ad. More. "Táň hor bí chayíň?" Do you want more?"

Hoth or hotth, n.m. (S. Ostha.) pl. Lips.

Huká, n.m. (P. huqqah.) The hubble-bubble, the tobacco pipe.
-píná, v.i. ir. To smoke. -bharná, v.i. re. To put fire on the tobacco.

Húm, n.m. (S. Homa.) Burnt offering, the casting of clarified butter, dried fruit, etc., into the sacred fire, as an offering to the gods, accompanied with prayers or invocations, according to the object of the sacrifice. -bajáwná, v.i. re. To sound a certain tune. -karná, v.i. ir. To feed the sacred flames with calrified butter, etc.

Hundi, n.f. (H.) The amount of revenue. -deni, v.i. ir. To pay revenue or taxes. -gráhni, v.i. re. To collect revenue.

Hungrnu, v.i. re. To low like a cow; f.-i, pl.-é.

Húr, n.m. A bolt above a door.

Hurnu, v.t. re. To shut in; f. -i, pl. -é.

Húró, n.m. Roaring or thundering.

Huwarnu, v.t. re. See Hwarnu.

Hwarnu, huwarnu, v.t. re. To unload, to put down one's load to a rest; f. -i, pl. -é (Also hwarna.)

Hyáo, hyáw, n.m. Courage.

Hyúň, n.m. (S. Hima.) Snow. -khan, n.f. The eternal snow, a glacier. -ghalnu, v.i. re. To melt, of snow. (Proverb.)

Hyúň ghalolá bádlié, soená ghalo suhágé, Thiňd ghalo, bánthiyá, kánjrí ráňdí ágé. 174

"The snow will melt with clouds, and gold with borax, So is a youth, O young man, before a harlot."

Hyûnd, n.m. The winter season.

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Ichhyá, n.f. (S. Ichchhá.) Desire, wish. -karni, v.i. ir. To wish.

Iji, n.f. Mother. Ijiyé, tú ká kar<u>ai</u>? "O mother, what are you doing?"

Ikkí, ad. Twenty-one. (H. ikkís.)

Iktáli, ad. Forty-one. (H. ikchálís.)

Ilam, n.m. (P. ilm.) Knowledge, cultivation of the mind.

In, n.m. See ain.

Indar, n.m. (S. Indra.) Also Indr. The deity of rain, the deity presiding over Swarga or the Hindu paradise, the deity of the atmosphere and rain. -ní bashdá. It does not rain. -bashdá bhájá. The sky refused to rain.

Iné, pro. pl Agent case. 'By these.'

Iňkh, n.f. (S. Ikshu, H. Ikh.) Sugarcane. (Kamándi in Kángrá.)

Inó, pro. pl. To these. (Also iyoň.)

Inón, pro. To these.

Inu, adv. So. ad. Such. (Used in Bashahr.)

Inré, n.m. pl. A kind of salty pudding made of the pulse called kolth (Dolichos biflorus).

In-re, pro. pl. Of these.

Irai, iré, n.f. A kind of plant of which baskets are made.

Ishá or -u, adv. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. So, such. Ishu kishu japau.

"Why do you say so?" Ishá bhalá ádmi. "Such a good
man." Ishi báto ná lai. "Don't say such things."
Ishe ghaur baná. "Build such houses."

Ishar, n.m. (S. Íshwara.) Heavenly Father, God, the Creator. Ishká or -u, adv. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. To this side. (Erká in Balsan, Jubbal and Púnar.)

Ishur, n.m. (S. Ishwara.) God.

J

Ja, v. Go. Jaa, adv. When.

> Jaa din á báňgé, Tundá máro dáňge.

'When times are not good, Then every one can give trouble.' Vol. VII, No. 5.] Dictionary of the Pahari Dialects.
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Jabáb, n.m. (H.) An answer, a reply, response. -nu, v.t. re.
To refuse, to deny; f. -i, pl. -é.

Jabai, adv. Whenever. (H. jabkabhí.)

Jab-kabai, adv. Whenever (you please).

Já'ch, n.f. A trial, estimate, examination.

Jáchnu, v.t. re. To try, to estimate, to examine; f. -i, pl. -é.

Jag, n.m. (S. Yajna.) A sacrifice. -dená, v.i. re. To perform a sacrifice, a religious ceremony.

Já'g, n.f. Awaking. -áwni, v.i. re. To awake; f. -í, pl. -é.

Jágá. n.f. (H. jagah.) A place, a room.

Jágá, v. The past tense of the verb jágņu, to awake, 'awoke'; f. -i, pl. -é.

Jagar, jagr. (1) n.m. A small wall. (2) ad. m. and f. Mute or dumb. -deni, v.i. ir. To build a wall.

Jágarn, n.m. (S. Jagarana.) Keeping ceremonial vigil the whole night.

Jagáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to wake; f. -i, pl. -é.

Jagát, n.f. (P. zagát.) Tax, octroi.

Jag-júp, n.m. A picture of the deity Ganesh carved in stone or wood and set up in the house-door when ready. (Used in Kángrá).

Jágnu, v.i. re. To get up, to awake; f. -i, pl. -é.

Jágrá, n.m. (S. Jágarana.) A religious ceremony observed throughout the Hill States. The principal rite is to invite the village deity to one's own house for worship, and give a grand feast after performing húm. -dená, v.i. ir. To offer a jágrá.

Jagrúl, n.f. A subscription for a jágrá. deni, v.i. ir. To sub-

scribe for a *jágrá*.

Jáguli, n.f. A catching in the throat from eating uncooked zimiqand, or ghuinyán. -lágni, v.i. re. To suffer from eating uncooked zimiqand, etc.

Jaidyá-bolní, v.i. re. To pay one's respects to a chief.

Jaikár, n.f. Victory. As: Jaikár dewá mahárájeá, rachchhá de balé howé. 'Victory to thee, O village deity, protect us by all the means in thy power.'

Jaind, ad. A fool, ignorant.

Jakáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to be rubbed.

Jáknu, v.t. re. To rub, to thicken; f. -i, pl. é.

Jakrnu, v.t. re. To arrest; f. -i, pl. -é.

Jal, n.m. (S. Jala.) Water. (Syn. Chis.)

Jaláb, n.m. pl. Purgation. lágné. v.i. re. To purge.

Jalá-hundá, ad. m.; -f.i., pl. é. Hot-tempered.

Jaláwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to burn; f. -1. pl. é.

Jal-jógan, n./. The nymph, residing near a water fountain, who is believed to cast spells over women and children and has to be propitiated with sacrifice. (Chambá). (Syn. Jal-mátrí.)

Jal-mátrí, n.f. See the preceding. Jalnu, v.i. re. To burn; f.-i. pl.-é. (H. jalná.) Jámat, n.t. Shaving. -karni, v.i. ir. To shave. -banáwni, v.i. re. To shave. Jamá't, n.f. (H.) A gang of mendicants, especially Vaishnavas. Jamáw, n.m. (H). A gathering. Jamáwnu, v.t. re. (1) To cause or allow to grow. (2) To cause or allow to become sour, of milk; f. -i, pl. -é. Jamkrá, ad. m.; f. -i. pl. -é. Born in one's own State or territory. Jámnu, v.i. re. (1) To grow. (2) To become sour, of milk; t. -í. pl. -é. Jamnu, v.i. re. To be born; f. -i, pl. -é. Jamti, n.f. A small citron tree. Jamtu, n.m. pl. A kind of citron. Ján, n./. (H. ján). Life, strength. -áwni, v.i. re. To survive. -jani, v.i. ir. To end one's life. Já'n, n.f. A huge stone. Janá, n.m. A person. Janás, n.f. Wife, woman (used in Biláspúr and Kángrá). Jaň-uň, adv. As long as. Jaň-uň sé ní áyá, táň-uň áň ní deňdá: "As long as he has not come, so long I won't go." Janáwnu, v.t. re. To acquaint, to introduce; t. -1. pl. -é. Jandá, n.m. A lock. -dená, v.i. ir. To lock up. Janét, n./. (H.) A wedding procession. Janeu, n.m. (S. Yajnopavíta.) The sacred thread. honu, v.i. ir. To celebrate the sacred thread ceremony. Jáni, con. Perhaps (lit. God knows). caste. Jánjá, n.m. Abstinence, sobriety, the act of putting out of Jánjnu, v.t. re. To put aside, to excommunicate, to put out of caste; f. -i, pl. -é. Janmantró, n.m. (S. Janmantara.) The next world. Janmástmí, n.f. (S. Janmáshtamí.) The birthday of Krishna, which falls annually on the 8th of the dark half of Bhádo, and men and women all fast on that day and perform the pújá of Srí-Krishna. It is a great feast among all the nill-men, cooked food as prasad being exchanged among relatives. Janmnu, v.i. re. (H. janamná.) To bring forth; f. -í. pl. -é. Ján-nu, v.t. re. (H. ján-ná). To know, to recognize; f. -i. pl. -é. Jánu, n.m. (S. Jánu). Knee. Jánu, v.i. re. To be born; f. -i. pl. -é. Japan or jappan, n.m. (1) Conversation. (2) A talk. Japáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to speak; f. -i, pl. -é. Japdá, pre. par. Speaking; f. -í, pl. -é. Japnu, v.t. re. (H. japná). To speak, to converse; to talk. /. -i, pl. -é. Japór, ad. m. Foolish, ignorant.

> Deshī ká jáno japór, Kishe karia khái khór.

"The men of the plains are fools, They know not how the walnut is eaten."

Japu-hundu, pas. par. Spoken; f. -i, pl. -é

Jár, n.m. A grinder tooth.

Jár or zár, n.m. A term for the Tibetans, whose religion is Buddhism.

Jar, n.m. (S. Jwara) Fever. - awná, v.i. ir. To suffer from fever.

Jarolí, n.f. Bread of barley-flour. -chánni, vi. re. To make bread of barley flour. -kháni, v.i. re. To eat barley food.

Jas, pro. Whom. -kas. pro. Whomever.

sh, n.m. (S. Yashas.) Glory. -boná, v.i. ir. To be glorious. -kamáwna, v.i. re. To gain glory.

Jasra or -u, pro. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Whose.

Ját, n./. (1) Caste. (2) A fair. (From Sanskrit yátrá.) -o-khejanu, v.i. ir. To go to a fair.

Jatálí, n.m. A messenger, a watchman (used in Kullú).

Jatt, n.m. (H.) The Jats of the plains.

Jaulu, n.m. pl. Twins. -jane, v.i. re. To bring forth twins.

Jaur, n.f. (H. jar.) Root.

Jáwá, n.m. A kind of wild tree.

Jáz or Záz, n.f. (H. dád.) Ringworm.

Je, con. If. As: Je áň dewndá. "If I had gone."

Jéb, n./. (H.) Pocket. (Syn Gújá, Khisá.)

Jebbú, adv. As soon as. (Also jebri.)

Jebri, adv. See the preceding.

Jé'k, n.m. A kind of tree.

Jéňshi, adv. On which day.

Jeolá, n.m. A term used in Kullú for 12 bhárs in area of land. half of which was held rent free in lieu of service, which was called barto-jeolá.

Jeorí, n.f. A rope, twine.

Jeotá, n.m. A kind of thin rope.

Jé'r, n.f. The womb, of cattle.

Jerá, ad. See Jishu. (Used in Bághal, Kunihár, Biláspúr and Nálágarh.)

Jé'ru, adv. See Jishu. (Balsan and Madhán.)

Jes, pro. See Jas. (Used in Basháhr and Kumhársain.)

Jes-kes, pro. See Jas-kas.

Jé't, n.f. Mouth. bákni, v.i. re. To open the mouth.

Jethá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Elder or eldest.

Jethai, adv. Wherever.

Jetháni, n.f. The wife of the husband's elder brother.

Jethi, adv. Where.

Jethia, adv. Whence.

Jethiyá, n.m. Husband's elder brother.

Jethul, n.f. A term used for an extra share of a field given to the eldest brother.

Jeti, adv. See Jethi.

Jetnu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. As much as (H. jitná). Jewri, n.f. See Jeori. Jewtá, n.m. A small rope. Jewti, n.f. Twine. Jgwáldá, pre. par. Watching; f. -í, pl. -é. Jgwáli, n.f. A guard, a watch. -karni. v.t. ir. To watch, to guard. Jgwálnu, v.t. re. To watch, to guard. Jgwalu-hundu or -á, m.; f. -í, p!. -é. Watched. Jhabbal, n.m. A jumper, an iron instrument used for mining. Jhafán, n.m. A kind of palanquin. (Also japhán.) Jhá'g, n.m. Foam. -áwná; v.i. re. To foam. Jhá'k, n.t. Care. -honi or -rákhni, v.i. ir. and re. To be careful. -rauni, v i. ir. To be anxious about. Jhákhr, n.m. A shrub. Jhá'l, n.m. A water-fall. Jhalárá, n.m. Swindling. -dená, v.i. ir. To swindle. Jháll, n.m. pl. Thorny shrubs. -fukné, v.i. re. To burn thorns. Jhallá, ad. m.; f. -1, pl. -6. Mad, insane. Jhamak, n.f. Itch. -lágni; v.i. re. To feel an itching. Jhamáká, n.m. A sudden light, lightning. Jhamman, n.m. The cover of a doli or palanquin. Jhá'n, n.f. (P. jahán.) The world, cf. Jihán. Jhanáokhá, n.m. Moonlight. Jháňwaň, n.m. (1) Light. (2) The filth of iron used to wash the feet, etc., also used to wash an elephant. Jhándá, n.m. A flag; f.-í. A small flag. (Also jhandá.) Jhangáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to kill; f.-i, pl.-e. Jhángnu, v.t. re. To kill, to put to death; f. -i, pl. -é. Jhángsh, n.m. The snake-plant. (Its root when dried and pounded is made into a powder and is a great remedy for cattle-itch. A small quantity is given with kneaded flour to the animal to eat.) Jhánj, n.f. Cymbals, made of bell metal and used in pairs. (H. jhánjh.) Jhántó, n.f. pl. Hair of the private parts (H.). Jhapetá, n.m. Struggle, strife, a quarrel. Jhar, n.m. pl. Continued rain. -lagné, v.i. re. To rain continuously. (Also jhari, n.f.) Jhárá, Agjhárá, n.m. A tinder-box. Jharáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to drop; f. -i, pl. -é. Jhárfá, n.m. Care, anxiety. -mán-ná, v.i. re. To be in the care of. Jhári, n.f. A chief's water vessel or water jar. Jhari, n.f. Continued rain, steady rain, or drizzle. lágni, v.i. re. To rain continually. Jharnu. v.i. re. To drop, to fall down (fruits, etc.); f. -i, pl. -é. Jhatáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to call; f. -i, pl. -é.

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Jhatnu, v.t. re. To call, to summon, to halloo: f. -i. pl. -é.
Jhátu, n.m. An illegitimate son (Basháhr).
Jhaul, n.f. Fire. -láni, v.i. re. To burn fire.
Jhe'l, n.m. The act of undergoing.
Jheláwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to undergo.
Jheldá or -u, m.; f. -i, pl. -é. pre. par. Undergoing, bearing.
Jhé'lkhána, n.m. (H.) The jail.
Jhelnu, v.t. re. To undergo, to bear.
Jhelu-hundu, pas. par. Undergone, borne; f. -i, pl. -é.
Jhelwnu, v.i. re. To be undergone, to be borne; f. -i; pl. -é.
Jhinga, n.f. A kind of fish.
Jhín-jan, n f. A good kind of rice.
Ihinkhnu, v.i. : e. To pine, to repent; f. -i, pl. -é.
Janu, v.t. re. To drag on; f. -i, pl. -é.
Jhirawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to drag; f. -i, pl. -é.
Jhirk or jhirki, n.j. Scolding, threatening. -deni, v.t. re. To
    scold, threaten. -kháni, v.i. re. To get a scolding.
Jhirkáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to scold; f. -i, pl. -é.
Jhirknu, v.t. re. To scold, to threaten; f. -i, pl. -e.
Jhirnu, v.t. re. To drag, to draw. Jhirdá or -u, m.; f. -i, pl. -é.
    pre. par. Dragging, drawing.
Jhiru-hundu or -a, m.; -f. i, pl. -e. pas. par. Dragged, drawn.
Jhísh, jhishí or jhishó, adv. Yesterday (Bhajji).
Jhithké, n.m. pl. Clothes.
Jhokkú, n.m. Burning fuel.
Jhoknu, v.i. re. To throw fuel on the fire. (H. jhokná.)
Jhó'l, n.t. See Jhaul.
Jholá, n.m. (H.) A wallet. -bharná, v.i. re. To fill a wallet.
Jholi, n.f. A small wallet. -lani, v.i. ir. To become a mendi-
Jhó't, n.m. A root, origin, foundation.
Jhukhrá, n.m. Timber, a large piece of wood.
Jhukhrí, n.f. Firewood, fuel. -chán-ni, v.i. re. To cut fuel.
     -báňdni, v.i. re. To distribute fuel.
Jhúlá, n.m. A swinging bridge.
Jhuláwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to swing; f. -i, pl. -é.
Jhuldá, pre. par. Swinging.
Jhulkáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to shake.
Jhulkdá, pre. par. Shaking, quaking, trembling; f. -í, pl. -é.
Jhulknu, v.i. re. To shake, quake, tremble; f.-i, pl.-é.
Jhulku-hundu, pas. par. Shaken; f. -i, pl. -é.
Jhulnu, v.i. re. To swing round.
Jhúm, n.f. A covering, made of a blanket, used to protect one
     from rain.
Jhumi-rauni, v.i. ir. To hang.
Jhumkú, n.m. pl. A kind of earrings. -láne, v.i. re. To wear
     earrings. -gharne, v.i. re. To make earrings (of gold or
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Jhumnu, v.i. re. (1) To hang down. (2) To dose, to slumber.

silver).

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Jhumr, n.m. (H.) An ornament worn on the head.
Jhunfrí, n.f. (H. jhoprí.) A cottage.
Jhungá, n.m. (1) Property. (2) Estate.
Jhunjrí, n.f. A kind of wild plant.
Jhutáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to drink.
Jhutnu, v.t. re. To drink, to quench; f. -1, pl. -é. (Basháhr).
Jhutth, n.m. (H. jhúth.) Untruth, fabrication, lie.
Jhwá'r, n.m. (1) A present. (2) Salutation.
Jhwarnu, v.t. re. See Juharnu.
Jía-de-rákhnu, v.t. re. To keep in mind, to love; f.-i, pl.-é.
J_{ia}-rá-antó. n.m. That which is in the mind.
Jia-rá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Of the mind.
                           The tongue. é japnu, v.t. re. To
Jibh, n.f. (S. Jihwá.)
    speak. (Also Jibti).
Jid, n.f. (P. zidd.) Opposition, persistence. -karni, v.i. ir.
     To persist.
Jidwá-huňdá, pas. par. Persisted; f. -í, pl. -é.
Jidwanu, v.i. re. To persist, to oppose.
Jiknu, v.t. re. To press down; f-1, pl. -é.
Jiku-hundu, pas. par. Pressed down; f. -i, pl. -é.
Jimá-hundá, pas. par. Eaten; f. -í, pl. -é.
Jimáwdá, pre. par. Feeding; f. -í, pl. -é.
Jimáwnu, v.t. re. To feed; f. -i, pl. -é.
Jimáwu-huňdu, pas. par. Fed; f. ·í, pl. -é.
Jimdá, pre. par. Eating, taking food; f. -í, pl. -é.
Jimi, n.f. (P. zamín.) Land. -jágá, n. Landed property,
Jimnu, v.t. re. To take food. (H. jimná.)
Jimpar, n.m. (S. Yamapura.) Death, demise.
Jindá, -u, pro. m.; f. -i, pl. -ė. In which.
Jindrí, n.f. (H. jindgí.) Life, existence, the course or period of
     life.
Jindri, n.f. (P. zindagi.) Short life.
Jiné, pro. By whom.
Jinié, pro. Who or by whom.
Jinó, pro. To whom.
Jishká or -u, adv. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Wherever.
Jishu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. As. (H. jaisá.)
Jitáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to win: 1.-1. pl. -é.
Jitdá, pre. par. Winning; f. -í, pl. -é.
Jitia or jitiró, c.p. Having won.
Jitnu, v.t. re. To win, to overcome, to conquer; f. -1, pl. -é.
Jitú, n.m. Conqueror.
Jitu-hundu, pas. par. Won, conquered; f.-i, pl.-é.
Jíú, n.m. (S. jíva.) The soul, life, disposition (Also jy\acute{u}.)
Jiúň or jyúň (S. Yama.) (1) Death. (2) The deity of death. Jiuňdá or jyúňdá, ad. m. Living; f. -í, pl. -é.
Jiwanu, v.i. re. To live, to pass one's life; f.-i. pl.-é.
Jiwawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to live; f. -1, pl. -é.
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[N.S.]Jiwe-jái-jánu, v.i. ir. To perish, to be bereft of life; /. -i. Jiwiró, c.p Having lived. Jmhái, n.f. (H. jamhái.) Yawning. -áwni, v.i. re. To yawn. Jmhyálí, n.f. (1) Chin. (2) The lower part of the mouth. Jó or Ju, pro. Who, which, or that. As: Ju kál áwu-thu, sé hun thu? "Who was the man, who came yesterday?" Jó, nm. See Jau. J_0 ch, n.f. A rope to fasten the yoke to the plough. (Also jot.) Jó'k, n.f. (S. Jalauká.) A leech. -o, pl. Leeches. -láni, v.i. re. To apply leeches. J_0 'r, n.f. (H. jar.) A root, c.f. Jaur. Jór, n.m. (P. zor.) Might or power, strength. Jó'r, n.m. (1) Joining, junction. (2) Total. -dená, v.i. ir. K = To add. -páná, v.t. re. To add (a piece). Jorá. n.m. (1) A pair. (2) A pair of shoes. -márná, v.t. re. To beat with shoes. (Syn. Páni.) Joráwnu, v.t. re. See Jráwnu. Jordá, pre. par. Joining; f. -í, pl. -é. Joría or joríro, c.p. Having joined, having added. Jornu, v.t. re. To join, to add; f. -i, pl. -é. Jor-nu, v.t. re. (H. jorná.) To join, to unite by repairs. Joru-hundu, pas. par. Joined, added; f. -1, pl. -é. Jo't, n.f. (1) See Joch. (2) Flame of a lamp. (3) A hill peak. Jotáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to plough; f. -i, pl. -é. Jotdá, pre. par. Ploughing; f. -i, pl. -é. Jotí, n.f. (S. Jyotish.) Light (of the sun or a lamp). Jotía or Jotíró, c.p. Having ploughed. Jotnu, v.t. re. To plough; f. -i, pl. -é. Jotu-hundu, pas. par. Ploughed; f. -1, pl. -é. Jpór, n.m. A fool. (Also japór.) Jrainth, n.m. A kind of wild pear. Jráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to join; f. -i, pl. -é. Jroli, n.f. See Jaroli. Ju, pro. See Jo. Ju, re. pro. Who or which. (Agentive Junien). Jú, n.f. Louse. -wó, pl. Lice. -parni, v.i. re. To suffer from lice. Júb, n.f. (S. Dúrvá.) Bent grass (Panicum dactylon) said to mean lit. 'That which hurts sin.' -o-ri-dali, n.f. A plant of bent grass. -jámni, v.i. re. To grow, of bent grass. Jubar or Jubr, n.m. Meadow, a level space with grass on it. -bahnu, v.i. re. To make a new field, to cultivate waste land. Jubr, n.m. See Jubar. Jubrí or jubtí, n.f. A small meadow. Jubți, n.f. See Jubri. Judh, n.m. (S. Yuddha.) War, a fight. Judh-mamla, n.m. Fighting.

Jugálé, n.m. pl. Watchmen.

Jugtié, adv. Carefully, attentively. Jugut, n.f. (1) Fitness, good accommodation. (2) Connection. Juhar or jhwar, n.m. (1) A present. (2) The present in cash made to a chief at an audience, or greeting. Juhárnu, v.t. re. To offer one's humble respects, to salute: f.-f. pl. -é. (Also jhwárnu.) Jujh, n.m. (S. Yuddha, a fight.) Fighting, war. -láná, v.i. re. To fight. -lágná, v.i. re. To begin fighting. Jujhdá, pre. par. Fighting; f. -í, pl. -é. Jujhnu, v.t. re. To fight; f. -i, pl. -é. Jujhia or jujhiró, c.p. Having fought. Juhju-hundu, past par. Fought; f.-i, pl.-é. Jukhám, n.m. (P. zugám.) Cold and cough. honá, v.i. ir. To suffer from cold and cough. (Also -áwná.) Julfiá or julfiyá, n.m. One who has curls. Julfó, n.m. pl. (P. zulf.) Curls. Jummó, n.m. (P. zimah.) Responsibility. -karnu, v.i. ir. To be responsible. Júň, n.m. Yoke. Jun or junié, rel. pro. Who or by whom. (The latter form is agentive.) Jún, n.m. (S. Drona.) A grain measure equal to 16 páthás or 4 arhás. Jú'n, n./. Moonlight or the moon. -lágni, v.i. re. To shine (of. the moon). Jún, n.f. A meal. Dují-jún. The next meal. Jundku, n.m. See Juți. Júní, n.f. Revenue in kind. (Also kárá-júní.) Junien, re. pro. (Agentive.) By whom or by which. Jurí-jánu, v.t. ir. To be engaged (in battle). Jurji-pani, v.i. re. To set against, to set by the ears. Juth, n.f. Uncleanliness, pollution. Juthá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Polluted by tasting. Juthan, n.f. Pollution by tasting Juthanya, n.m. (S. Dwisthaniya.) The second son of a chief. (Also duthanyá.) Juthdá, pre. par. Cleaning the hands and mouth after taking food. Juthia or juthiró, c.p. Having cleaned the hands and mouth. Juthnu, v.i. re. To clean the hands and mouth after taking food. Juthu, ad. Polluted by tasting; f. -i, pl. -é. Jutdá, pre. par. Being engaged in any work; f. -i, pl. -é. Juti, n.f. Braided hair of a maiden. Jutia or Jutiró, c.p. Having been engaged. Jutnu. v.i. re. To be engaged, to be at work; f. i. pl. -é. Jutu-hundu, pas. par. Engaged. Juwrá, n.m. A broom (used in Bhajií). Jwádri, n.f. A butterfly. pl. Jwádrí. Syn. Fimfri. Jwáin, n.m. (S. Jámátri.) Son-in-law.

Jwain, n.f. (S. Ajamodá.) (1) The common carroway (Carum carui), a kind of lovage (Lingusticum ajwaen, Rox.). (2) A kind of parsley (Apium involucratum); said to mean, lit. 'That which pleases a goat.'

Jwan, n.m. A youth, an adult. ad. Young. -ta, n.m. ti, n.f.

One in his teens.

Jwáns, n.f. A female, a woman.

Jyú, n.m. See Jiú.

Jyúň, n m See Jíuň.

Κ .

Ká! pro. What? Which? As: Ká bolo ji? "What do you say?"

Kaa? or kau? adv. How many?

Kabai? adv. When, at what time? -kabai, adv. Sometimes.

Kabá't, n.f. (P. qabáhat.) Inconvenience, objection. -honi, v.i. ir. To be inconvenient.

Kabré? adv. At what time?

Ká'ch, n.m. (H.) (1) Glass. (2) A necklace of beads.

Káchu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Unripe, not well cooked, only half cooked.

Káchh, n.m. The armpit. (S. kaksha.)

Káchlri, n.f. A rope to bind a load. -láni, v.i. re. To bind a load to carry it away.

Kádashí, n.f. (S. Ekádashí.) The eleventh day of the bright or dark half of a month.

Kadí? adv. When? At what time? -ní, adv. Never.

Kadí-jáň, adv. Long ago.

Kadí-ní, adv. Never.

Kadká, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Long ago. (Also kadkú.)

Káfal or káffal, n.m. pl. A kind of wild tree or its fruits.
-pákņé, v.i. re. To ripen, of wild fruits.

Kafan, n.m. Coffin, shroud; f.-i, A coffin.

Kafní, n.f. See Kafan.

Kágat, n.m. (P. kágaz.) Paper.

Káhat, ad. Sixty-one. -wáň, ad. Sixty-first.

Kahattar, ad. Seventy-one. -wan, ad. Seventy-first.

Káthlú-bír, n.m. A spirit who lives on the mountains and whose anger causes landslips. It must be appeared with sacrifice (Chambá).

Kaí, ad. (H.) Too many, a great many.

Kái, n.f. (1) Moss. (2) Desire.

Kail, n.f. The blue pine. -ti, n.f. A small blue pine tree.

Kaili, n.f. Uneasiness. -parni, n.i. re. To be uneasy. -awni, v.i. re. To become uneasy.

Kain ni, n.f. (H. kaháni, a story.) A riddle.

Kaini láú bjhaiň-ni láú, bujh bajháiyá bírá, Eksai dáliyé chaun fal láge, híng, jwán, jírá.

"I tell you a riddle or a puzzle, O understanding hero:-There are three fruits on a tree, assafætida, lovage and cummin." (The reply is 'a large spoon.')

Káiň, n.m. See Jún.

Kaiň or Kyéň, ad. Something. -ní, ad. Nothing.

Kainal, n.f. The green pigeon.

Kainchi, n.t. (H.) (1) Scissors. (2) The slope of a roof.

Kainth, n.m. A kind of wild pear; c.f. Jrainth.

Kairi, kánri, kyári, n.f. The neck. Balí Ráje kánri dái:

"Balí Rájá bent his neck."

Káit, káith or káyath, n.m. (S. káyastha). An accountant, a writer. (Basháhr, Kumhársain, Mandí and Suket.) In the Simla Hill States he is called Bagshi or Bagsi.

Káith, n.m. See Káit.

Káiti, n. f. Moss, lichen.

Káj, n.m. (S. Káryya.) Work, business.

Kajo? adv. What for? (Kángrá, Biláspúr and Nálágarh.) (In the Simla Hills kwé or kwai is used.)

Kakh, n.m. A straw. Proverb:-

Bharí múth lákho rí. Kholí kakho rí.

"A closed fist will hold a million, An open one will not hold a straw.''

(Meaning that honour is the best thing, and disgrace a thing worth nothing.)

Kakkar, n.m. A tree which yields valuable timber.

Kákkar, n.m. The barking deer.

Kákrí, n.f. (S. Karkatí.) (1) A cucumber. (2) The lungs. -rá rog, n.m. Lung disease.

Káku, n.m. A polite term used in addressing a boy.

Kál or káll, adv. Yesterday. -byálé, adv. Yesterday evening. -bhyáňsrí, adv. Yesterday morning.

Kal, n.f. (S. Kalaha.) Dispute, quarrel, struggle. -honi, v.i. ir. To be disputed, to struggle.

Ká'l, n.m. (S. Akála, and Kála.) (1) The time of death. (2) Famine. -parná, v.i. ir. To be a famine year.

Kál, kálo, n.m. (S. Kála, time.) Death, demise.

Kálá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Black. (H.)

Kalam, n.f. (H.) A pen. -banáwni, v.i. re. To mend a pen.

Kálan or kálné, n.f. A variety of coarse rice sown on dry land. Kaláo or kaláw, n.m. A kind of pea. cf. Kláw (Basháhr).

Kalewá, n.m. Breakfast. -karná, v.i. ir. To take breakfast.

Kalgí, n.f. (H.) An ornament worn on a turban.

Káli-marcho-re dáné, n.m. pl. Black pepper seeds.

Káljá, n.m. (H. kalejá.) Liver. (Also kálju.) Kalká or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Saltish, too salty.

Kálú-bír, n.m. See Káhlú-bír.

Kám, n.m. (S. Káma.) Work, business. -káj, n.m. Domestic duties. -kar, n.m. Office or household duties.

Kam, ad. (H.) Less, -honu, v.i. ir. To be less. -karnu, v.t. ir. To make less. -i, n.j. Deficiency.

Kámá, n.m. A servant. (Kángrá, Biláspúr and Nálágarh.)

Kamái, n.f. (H.) (1) Earnings, wages. (2) Fate, fortune.

Kamál, n.m. A kind of grass.

Kamándi, n.f. See ľňkh. (Kángrá.)

Kamáwia or kamáwiró, c.p. Having earned.

Kamáwňdá, pre: par. Earning; f. -í, pl. -é.

Kamáwnu, v.t. re. To earn.

Kamáwu-huňdu or -a, pas. par. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Earned.

Kámdár, m.n. An official. -í, n.f. Officialdom. Generally used to denote the officials of a parganá. Each parganá has five officials: the mahtá or mautá, karáuk or kráuk, siáná, gheňghná, and piádá. The mautá corresponds to a náib tahsíldár and decides petty cases. The kráuk collects the cash revenue and hands it over to the mautá for payment into the State treasury. He has also to manage the corvée in his parganá. The siáná examines the revenue accounts to see if any land-revenue remains unrealized. The gheňghná's duty is to realize the clarified butter levied on certain grass lands. The piádá's is to carry out the orders of the mautá, kráuk and siáná. (Also kárdár.)

Kámdárí, n.t. See Kámdar.

Kámdhenu, n.f. (S.) The cow of plenty; also used for any cow that never calves yet always gives milk.

Kamhalú, n.m. A kind of basket used to keep wool in for spinning.

Kamhaltú, n.m. dim. A small long basket to keep wool in.

Kamí, n.f. (H.) Decrease, deficiency. -karni, v.i. ir. To decrease. -honi, v.i. ir. To be decreased.

Kámmaļ, n.m. (H. kambal.) A blanket. (S. Kamvala.)

Kamr, n.f. (H. kamar.) The waist. -ban-ni, v.i. re. (1) To gird up one's loins. (2) To be ready.

Kamwánu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to earn; f. -i, pl. -é.

Ká'n, n.m. pl. (S. Karna, H. kán.) Ears, the organs of hearing.

Káná, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. (H.) One-eyed. (Also kánu.)

Kaná, -u, ad. m.; f.-i, pl. -e. The youngest.

Kanait, n.m. See Kanet.

Kanak, n.f. (H.) Wheat. (Syn. Geúň or Giúň.)

Kanáli, n.f. A large wooden vessel used for kneading flour, etc.

Kanáwará, n.m. An inhabitant of Kanáwar; j. -í, pl. -é.

Kanbál, n.m. The ceremony of boring a child's ears.

Kanbáli, n.f. (H.) An earring. (Also kantáli.)

Kanbíchá, n.m. A heavy earring worn in the middle of the ear.

Kanchhá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. (S. Kanishtha.) Younger or youngest.

Kanchhul, n.f. The right of the youngest brother to get a room over and above his share as one of the brothers.

Káňdá, n.m. (H. kántá.) (1) A thorn. -chubhná, v.i. re. To pierce with a thorn. (2) A ridge. Kandá, pre. par. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Groaning.

Kan-de-lágnu, v.i. re. To begin to groan; f.-i, pl.-é.

Kaňdéi, n.f. (S. Kantakáriká.) A medicinal plant, a sort of prickly nightshade (Solanum jacquini.)

Kandyái, n. f. A kind of thorny herb used in medicine.

Kanérú, kanhérú, n.m. An iron tip for an arrow.

Kanét, n.m.; -an, n. f. The term for the fourth class of the Hindús in the Simla Hills. The Kanets are divided into several hundred septs, some of which are descended from the original inhabitants of these hills known as máwis. A proverb runs: Kaneto ri má ek, báw thárá. "A Kanet has one mother and eighteen fathers."

Káňgano, n.m. pl. Bracelets. (S. Kaňkana.)

Káňgru, n.m. A small comb. (Fr. H. kaňgá.)

Kanhaitnu, v.t. re. To gather, to collect; f. -i, pl. -é.

Kanhór, n.m. Chestnut. Wild chestnut. (In Basháhr they make flour of wild chestnuts by keeping them for some time in running water.

Kaní, n.f. (H.) A very small bit. As: Hire ri kani. A small bit of diamond.

Kanía or kaniró, c.p. Having groaned.

Kanié? pro. With which? adv. Why?

Kani-joga? phrase. For what purpose, what for?

Kaňkí, n.f. Lingering, delay. -láni, v.i. re. To linger.

Kankórí, n.f. A Brahman girl given in marriage to a Brahman and dowered by a chief's wife.

Kánn, n.m. (S. skandha.) Shoulder. -o-pánde, adv. On the shoulders.

Kanná, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. See Kanchhá.

Kan-nu, v.i. re. To groan; f. -i, pl. -é.

Kánri, n.f. See Kairi.

Káňsá, n.m. (S. Káňsya.) Bell-metal, white metal.

Kansí, n.f. A blacksmith's tool.

Kantálí, n.f. See Kanbálí.

Kantáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to groan; f. -i, pl. -é.

Kantáwnu, v.t. re. To trouble; f. -i, pl. é.

Kanthá, n.m. (H.) A big necklace.

Kanthí, n.f. A small necklace. -bán-ni, v.t. re. To make a disciple.

Kaňthi, n.f. A necklace of tulsí (worn by males).

Kánu, ad. m. See Káná.

Kánu, n.m. pl. Husks of rice.

Kanaudú, n.m. A disliked man an enemy, a foe.

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Kanyai or knyai, n.m. Noise. -páná or -láná, v.i. re. To make a noise.

Kapat, n.m. (H.) Deceit. -i, ad. Deceitful.

Kaptí, ad. (S. Kapatin.) Deceitful.

Kár or ká'r, n.f. (S. Kára.) Duty, work, business. As: Deokár. The work of a godling. Ráulí-kár, State business. Jai jai-kar. A blessing used in greeting a god or deity.

Kárá, n m. Revenue, taxes. - bharná, v.i. re. To pay taxes.

Karam, n.m. (S. Karmma.) Work, duty. Kriyá- n.m. (1) The last duties performed after cremation. (2) An act. Karattan, n.m. (H.) Bitterness.

Karáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to do or make; f.-i, vl. ∙é.

Kárbár, n.m. (H.) Business. -karná, v.i. ir. To be engaged.

Kárbárí, n.m. One who manages, a manager.

Karchhá, n.m. A large spoon used in cooked pulse. f.-i. A spoon. -u, n.m. A small spoon.

Karhául, n.f. A loan. -kárhni, v.i. re. To borrow.

Karháwnu, v.t. re. To cause to borrow.

Kárhnu, v.t. re. (1) To boil. (2) To take out.

Karj, n.m. (P. qarz, a debt.) (1) A debt. (2) Revenue. Proverb: Karjó rí jimí thánde, pání rá nhán sárté fábo. "Land on payment of taxes and a cold bath can be had everywhere.'

Kárkháná, n.m. (H.) Workshop.

Karnál, n.m. A long kind of musical instrument made of brass -bájni, v.i. re. To blow the karnál. -chi, n.m. One who blows the karnál.

Karnu, v.t. ir. (H. karná.) To do, to make, to work; f. -i, pl. -é. pas. ten. Kiňyáň; f. -í, pl. -é. pre. par. Kardá; f. -í. pas. par. Kiu-huňdu. cp. Karia or Kariró.

Kártá, n.m. Household work.

Karú? v. May I do?

Karuwi-roti, n.f. See Kauri-roti.

Karúwu or -á, ad m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Bitter, distasteful.

Kas? pro. Whom? "Kas bolai?" Whom do you say?

Kash or kaush, n.m. (1) An oath, an ordeal. (2) Contamination. -charná, v.i. re. To be contaminated with verdigris. Kashátú, n.m. A species of rice, red in colour. (Also Kshátu.)

Kashi, n.f. A hoe. -lani, v.i. re. To work with a hoe.

Káshi, n.f. (1) Pasture. (2) Branches of forest trees cut as fodder for goats, etc. -chán-ni, v.i. re. To make pasture for cattle. -khe-dewnu, v.i. re. To go to bring leaves for cattle.

Kash-karná or -laná or -thwáwná, v.i. re. To take an oath.

Kashokrá, n.m. An agreement by which one party who agrees to the other's taking an oath has to pay a rupee to the ruler. paná, v.i. re. To pay a rupee to the ruler for the other party's agreeing to undergo an ordeal.

Kashmal, n.m. Burbis barbra. A thorny shrub bearing long sharp thorns and black berries which ripen in June. The root, which is like turmeric in colour, is boiled and slices are used as poultices for diseases of the eye. Rasaut in Hindí.

Kashnu, v.t. re. (H. kasná.) To tighten, to bind, to tie. Kamr-kashni, v.i. re. To be ready; to gird up one's loins.

Kashrá or -u, pro. m.; j. -í. pl. -é. See Kasrá.

Kashri, n.f. The act of presenting butter to a village deity. The people store clarified butter in the name of village deity, and when the ghira (clay receptacle for ghi) is full, offer it first to the deity and then use it.

Kasht, n.m. Kashtí, n.f. (Ś. Kashta.) Trouble, pain. -parná, v.i. re. To be in trouble. -thwáwná, v.i. re. To take

trouble.

Kasr or kassr. Illness, sickness. -honi, v.i. ir. To be ill.

Kasrá? or u? pro. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Whose?

Kassam, n.f. (P. qasm.) An oath, an ordeal. -kháni, -karni or

thwáwni, v.i. re. To take an oath.

Kastúri, n.f. (S. Kastúrí.) Musk or a musk-pod. The animal perfume so called is brought from Tibet, Nepál, Bhútán, Kashmir and Kanáwar. It is also found in the Simla hills. The best is that imported from Dodrá Kawár in Basháhr.

Katáb, n.m. (H. kitúb.) A book; pl. -ó.

Katáí or ktáí, n.f. The act of cutting. -lágni, v.i. re. To begin cutting.

Katáí or ktáí, n.f. The act of spinning.

Kathá, n.f. (S.) A story or history such as the Rámáyana or Mahábhárata. A tax was formerly levied on this in Kullú.
 -báňchṇi, v.i. re. To relate a story.

Kathéru, n.m. pl. A kind of hill peaches that ripe in October.

Katán, ad. pro. Several. (Also ktán.)

Katarnu, v.t. re. (H. katarná.) To clip, to cut with scissors.

Katáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to cut or fell; f. -i, pl. -é.

Katáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to spin; -f. -i, pl. -é.

Káti, n.m. (S. Kártika.) The seventh Hindú month corresponding to October. -é, adv. In October.

Kátnu, v.t. re. To spin; f.-í, pl.-é. Kátá-huňdá. pas. par. Spun. Kátdá, pre. par. Spinning. Kátia or kátiro, c.p. Having spun. Kátá, pas. ten. Spun.

Kátnu, v.t. re. To cut, to fell; f. -i, pl. -é. Kátdá, m.; f. -i, pl. -é. pre. par. Cutting. Kátía, c.p. Having cut. Kátu-

hundu, pas. par. Cut.

Kau? pro. See Kaa.

Kauní, n.f. (S. Kangu.) A kind of grain (Panicum Italicum); several varieties are cultivated and used as food by the poor.

Kaun, n.m. (S. Kamala.) (1) A lotus. (2) A cup.

Kauň-ní, n.f. (S. Kaňgu.) A sort of panic.

Kaunthí, n.f. (S. Shyámaka.) A kind of grain (Panicum frumentaceum, etc.). Also shánwk.

Kaurí-rotí, n.f. A tax levied on the death of a chief at one rupee per house, payable on the 5th, 7th, or 9th day after his demise. The money raised is spent on the performance of the rites called kriyá-karm.

Kauwá, n.m. (S. Káka.) A crow.

Káyá-dhární, v.i. re. To assume a human form.

Káyath, n.m. See Káit.

Kaziyá, n.m. (P. qaziah.) A quarrel, a dispute, strife. -karná, v.i. re. To dispute. -honá, v.i. ir. To be disputed.

Kbakht, n.m. (H. kamwaqt.) Unfortunate, unlucky; -i, n.f. Misfortune.

Kbát, n.f. (P. kabáhat.) Inconvenience, objection. -honí, v.i. ir. To be inconvenient. -karni, v.i. ir. To make inconvenient. Also Kabát or kfát.

Kcháetu or kcháethu, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Undesired, not easy. (Also kacháetu or kacháethu.)

Kchái, n.f. Weakness, immaturity. (H. kachchái.)

Kchajá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Of no use, bad, wicked.

Kchaju, á, m.; f. -í, $p\dot{l}$. -é. (1) Not good, i.e., bad. (2) Good for nothing.

Kchál, n.f. (H. kuchál.) A bad custom.

Kcháli or kcháwlí, n.f. (An esculent root also called ghuinyán.)

Kcháwlí, n.f. See Kchálí.

Kchyund, n.f. A squint. -deni, or -marni, v.i. re. To see with one eye.

Kdauru, n.m. A wild plant like mistletoe, but with red berries. Kdhangá or -u, ad. m.; f. -1, pl -é. Not well-shaped, ugly.

Kdimi, ad. m.; and f. pl. (P. qadimi.) Eternal, perpetual. firm.

Kdith or kdithá, n.m. The flour of the black grain called kodá. Kdól, ad. m. Of an ugly shape.

Kdolí, n.m. Bread made of kodá.

Kdoshlé, n.m. pl. Loaves made of kodú.

Ke, con. Or, or, either. (Also ki.)

Kebrí? adv. See Kabai? (Basháhr and Kotgarh.)

Kei, keti? or kethi? adv. Where? At what place?

Kele, n.m. pl. (S. kadalí.) Plantains. -láne. v.i. re. To cultivate plantains. -kháne, v.i. re. To eat plantains.

Keló, n.f. A species of cedar. (Pinus devadaru.)

Kelti, kelwî, n.f. A small cedar tree.

Kelwi, n. f. See the preceding.

Kéň, kyéň, pro. Anything.

Kenshi? adv. On which day?

Kenu, adv. See Kishu (Bashahr and Kotgarh).

Kéň-yiň, pro. Something or anything.

Kéň-yiň-ni, pro. Nothing.

Kerá? adv. See Kishu (Bághal, Kunhiár and Bhajjí).

Kerí, kyári, n.f. Neck. Syn. gardan.

Ké'ru? adv. See Kishu? (Balsan and Madhán.)

Késh, n.m.; pl. (S. Kesha.) Hair.

Kesí? adv. Which way?

Kesr, n.m. (S. kesara.) Saffron.

Kethí? adv. See Keí?

Ketí? adv. See Keí?

Ketnu? or -á? ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. How much?

Ketu, n.m. A kind of wild plant.

Kewú, n.m. See Kaláw (used Kotí, Keonthal and Baghát).

Kfát, n.f. See Kbát.

Kfé'r, n.m. Difficulty, hardship, trouble. Proverb: Jaa paro ktér, taa ná pání lé'r; jaa á ghé'r, taa ná pání bé'r. 'When there is trouble, one ought not to weep; when there is an opportunity, there should be no delay.

Kgál, ad. (H. kangál.) Poor, helpless. -honu, v.i. ir. To be Khábal, khábbal, n.f. A net, snare, noose. -o de lágnu, v.i. re.

To be caught in a snare.

Khabr, n.f. (P. khabr.) News, tidings. deni, v.i. ir. To give news. -honi, v.i. ir. To be known. -karni, v.i. ir. To inform. -lani, v.t. ir. To take care.

Khá'ch, n.m. See Khát.

Khachái, n.f. The act of digging.

Khacháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to dig or excavate.

Kháchdá or -u, pre. par. f. -í, pl. -é. Digging.

Kháchia or kháchiró, c.p. Having dug.

Kháchnu, v.t. re. To dig, to excavate; f. -i, pl. -é.

Kháchr, n.f. (H. khachchar.) A mule. pl. -i.

Kháchu? v. May I dig?

Kháchu-huňdu or -á, pas. par. Dug f. -í, pl. -é.

Khad, n.m. A ditch. (Also khádd.)

Khá'd, n.m. (H.) Manure.

Khád, n.f. A small river.

Khadd, n.f. See Khad.

Khádrá, n.m. pl.-é. A kind of coarse grass.

Khádú or kháddú, n.m. (H.) A ram. (Syn. bhér.) Khafkí, n.f. (P. khafyí.) Displeasure. -hoṇi, v.i. ir. To be displeased. -karni, v.i. ir. To be displeased. -kháni, v.i. re To bear one's displeasure. -parni, v.t. re. To be displeased.

Khai, n.f. Rust. -khoni, v.t. re. To remove rust. -lágni, v.i. re. To be rusty. -lági-jáni, v.i. ir. To be rusty.

Kháí, n.f. (1) Embezzlement, misappropriation of money. -lágni or -láni, v.t. re. To embezzle. (2) A pit, a ditch. -kátni, or -khodni, v.i. re. To dig a ditch or pit.

Khainch, n.f. (H.) Pulling, the act of pulling. -nu, v.t. re. To pull, to draw. - átán, n.f. A struggle, contention, the act

of pulling. - átán-lagni, v.i. re. To struggle.

Kaincháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to pull; f. -i, pl. -é.

Khainchnu, v.t. re. See Khainch.

Khair, n.f. (P. khair.) Welfare. -honi, v.i. ir. To be good. -manáwni, v.t. re. To wish well.

Khair, n.m. (S. khadira.) A tree, the resin of which is used in medicine. (Terra japonica or catechu: Mimosa catachu.)

Khairu, n.m. A kind of gruel made from sour cheese by boiling

rice in it. (Also kjúwtu.)

Khairu or -a, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Brown (in colour).

Khá'j, n.f. (S. kharjú.) Cutaneous eruption, itch, scab, etc. -honi, v.i. ir. To suffer from itch. lágni, v.i. re. To have the itch. -khurkni, v.i. re. To scab off the itching part. -khurk-de-lágnu, v.i. re. To begin to itch.

Khajánchi, n.m. (H.) A treasurer. -gíri, n.j. The work of a cashier. -giri-karni, v.i. ir. To work as a cashier.

Khajbli, n.f. Haste. -lágni or honi, v.i. To be hasty.

Khájí, n.j. Itch. scab.

Khákh, n.m. Cheek, pl. -o.

Khal, khaul, n.m. The substance that remains after extracting oil from oil seeds.

Khá'l, n.f. (H.) A hide, skin. -kárni v.i. re. To skin. (Also khalrá.)

Khá'l, n.m. A tank, a pond. Dim. -tá, n.m. A small pond.

Khaljá, n.m. A kind of resin, frankincense.

Khalrá, n.m. See Khál.

Khalrí, n.f. (1) A small skin bag. (2) A skin, a hide; m.-4, pl. -é.

Khaltá, n.m. See Khalra. (Also khaltu.)

Kháltá, n.m. A small pond.

Khaltu, n.m. See Khaltá.

Kham, n.m. Crookedness.

Khámbá, n.m. (H. khambá.) A beam of timber, a pier.

Khámpá, n.m. An inhabitant of Ladákh.

Khán, n.f. (S. khani.) A mine.

Khanáí, n.f. The act of digging or excavating. láni, v.i. re. To begin digging.

Khanawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to dig; f. -i, pl. -é.

Khand, n.f. (H.) Sugar. Proverb: Khand mandwa ekai bhaw: 'Sugar and black grain at one rate.'

Khand, n.f. Discord, enmity. -karni, v.i. ir. To make discord. -kholni, v.i. re. To become agreeable, to be on good terms. -pani, v.i. re. To be adverse to or against. -parni, v.i. re. To become hostile. -honi, v.i. ir. To be at enmity.

K-háni, n.f. (1) A story. (2) Betrothal. -honi, v.i. ri. To

be betrothed.

Khánjri, n.f. (H. khanjarí.) A tambourine. -bajáwni, v.i. re. To play on a tambourine. -marhni, v.i. re. To cover a tambourine with leather.

Khánká or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Lit. 'That which bites.' Vicious, fierce, like a lion, bear or leopard. -mrig, n.m.

A lion, bear or leopard.

Khan-nu, v t. re. To dig, to excavate; f. -i, pl. -é. Khandá or -u, m.; /. -i, pl. -é. pre. par. Digging, excavating. -kha. nia or khaniró, c.p. Having excavated, dug. -khanuhundu or á, m.; f.-i, pl. -é. pas. par. Excavated.

Khánu, v.t. re. To eat, to take food. Khándá, pre. par. Eating. Kháia or kháiró, c.p. Having taken food. Kháu-huňdu.

pas. par. Eaten.

Kháňsí, n.f. (H.) Cough. -honi, v.i. ir. To suffer from cough.

Khanti, n.f. (S. Khanda.) A bit, a piece.

Khar, khaur, n.m. Grass, hay. -lun-nu, v.i. re. To cut grass. -o-khe-dewnu, v.i. re. To go to cut grass. Mere kharo khé dewnu a', "I have to go for grass."

Khá'r, n.f. pl. khárí. A grain measure equal to 20 júns or dro-

nas (16 páthás make one jún.)

Kharch, n.m. (H.) Expense. -honu, v.i. ir. To be expended. -karná, v.t. ir. To disburse, to expend.

Khárchá, n.m. A thick blanket made of goat's hair. (Syn. bakráthá.)

Khárí, n.f. pl. See Khá'r.

Kharin. n.m. A tester of grain. (Mandí.)

Khark, kharki, n.f. A kind of tree, the leaves of which are as a fodder for cattle.

Kharkí, n.f. See Khark.

Kharnu, v.i. re. (1) To be tired. (2) To stand; /. i, pl. é.

Khársh, n.f. A grain measure equal to 20 khárís.

Kharu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. Good, well. -honu, v.i. ir. To be good. -karnu, v.t. ir. To scrutinize; f. ·í, pl. -é.

Kharuwnu, v.i. re To stand up. Meré ní kharuwó: "I cannot stand up."

Khasam, n.m. (H.) Husband, master. -khání, n.f. A widow.

Khash, Khaush, n.m. A grade or sub-caste of Kanets found in the Simla hills. (The latter form is used in Kotkháí and Jubbal.)

Khá't, n.m. A pit. -khodnu, v.i. re. To dig a pit. (Also khách, or khátí.) [cremated.

Khát, n.m. The frame on which a dead body is carried to be Khátan, n.m. Means, livelihood.

Kháti, n.f. See Khát.

Khatká, n.m. (1) A knock. (2) A doubt, uncertainty. -honá, v.i. ir. To be knocked. -láná. To knock, to doubt.

Khatkáwnu, khtkáwnu v.t. re. To cause or allow to knock.

Khatknu, v.t. re. (1) To knock. (2) To be doubtful; f. -i, pl. é.

Khatmal, n.m. (H.) See Mánguní.

Khátnu, v.i. re. To dig, to excavate; f. -i, pl. -é.
Khátnu, v.t. re. To earn, to gain, to work. Khatdá, pre. par
Working. Khatu-huňdu, pas. par. Earned or gained.

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Khatía or khatíró, c.p. Having earned, gained or worked. Proverb: Khátá paisá Ráje rá, jáyá betá jíuň rá: 'The money earned is for the Rájá, and a son is born for the lord of death.'

Khátnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to earn; f. -i, pl. -é.

Khátnu, v.t. re. To amass, to gather; f. ·i, pl. -é.

Khátr-twájá, n.f. (P. khátir-tawazah.) Hospitality, a warm reception. -hoṇi, v.i. ir. To be received with great kindness. -karṇi or -láṇi, v.t. ir. and re. To offer one's reception.

K-hattr, ad. 71. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -wéň, pl. Seventy-first.

Khátu or -á, ad. m.; j. i, pl. -é. (H. khatta.) Acid, sour.

Khauhrá, n.m. (H. kharahrá.) À currycomb. -láná, v.t. re. To currycomb.

Khaul, n.m. See Khal.

Khauljá, n.m. See Khaljá.

Khaur, n.m. See Khar.

Khauru or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. (1) Clean. (2) Hairless.

Khaush, n.m. See Khash.

Kháwní, n.f. (Fr. khánu: to eat.) An oath or a curse. Tesqi màň khe khâwní dití: "She cursed me."

Khbár, n.m. (P. akhbár.) Newspaper.

Khbáni, n.f. See Khobáni.

Khdernu, v.t. re. To drive off, to hunt; f. -i. pl. -é.

Khé, n.f. Excrement, ordure. -kháni, v.i. re. To curse. Also an affix added to nouns, as: Táň-khe: for you. Teso-khe, for her. Hámo-khe, for us.

Khé'ch, khét, n.m. (H. khet.) A field, land.

Khechi or kheti, n.f. Cultivation. -karni, v.i. ir. To cultivate. Khedawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to drive or hunt; f. -i, pl. -ė.

Khedi-denu, v.t. ir. To cause or allow to drive or hunt.

Khednu, v.t. re. To drive, to hunt; f. -i, pl. -é.

Kheh, n.f. See Khé.

Khél, n.f. A sept, a clan.

Khe'l, n.m. (H.) (1) A play. (2) A fair at which archery is practised.

Khelárí, n.m. (H.) One who plays, a player.

Khelnu, v.i. re. To play, to sport.

Khelwar, n.m. A plaything.

Khép, n.f. Cargo, assortment. [goti.]

Kheshri, n.f. A piece of cloth worn between the legs. (H. lan-Khé't, n.m. (H.) See Khé'ch, kheti, n.f. See Khechi.

Kheti-bári, n.f. (H.) Cultivation.

Khetri, n.f. An allotment of land made to a mahr. (Biláspúr.) Khetrú, n.m. See Bethú. (Basháhr, Jubbal, Kumhársain.)

Khichri, khichru, n.m. and f. (H.) A dish of pulse and rice boiled together. -honi or -honu, v.i. ir. To be mixed together.

Khij, khiz, n./. Displeasure, indignation, anger. -honi, v.i. ir. To be angry or displeased. -karni, v.i. ir. To become angry. -saun-ni, v.i. re. To incur anyone's indignation or displeasure.

Khijnu, v.t. and i. re. (1) To be angry, to be displeased. (2)

To become weak.

Khíl, n./.; pl.-o. Swollen parched rice or grain. -bhujni, v.i. re. To parch swollen grain.

Khilárí, n.m. See Khelárí.

Khiňddá, pre. par. Spilling.

Khindia or khindiró, c.p. Having spilt or scattered. Khindi-janu, v.i. ir. To be spilt or scattered; f. i, pl. se.

Khindnu, v.t. re. To spill, to scatter; f. -i. pl. -é.

Khindrí, n.f. A quilt. An old quilt.

Khindtá or -u, n.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. A small quilt.

Khindu-hundu or -a, pas. pa . Spilt, scattered; f. -i, pl. -é.

Khinkháp, n.m. (P. kamkhwáb.) A kind of laced silk cloth (made in Benares).

Khinlá, n.m. A hoe.

Khír, n.f. (H.) A dish of rice boiled in milk.

Khírá, n.m. (H.) See Kákrí.

Khir-khirá-wé, adv. aloud. -hásnu, v.i. re. To laugh aloud. -

Khis, n.f. Breaking wind. -chharni, v.i. re. To break wind. Khisá, n.m. See Gújá.

Khíz, n.f. See Khíj.

Khjíná, n.m. (P. khazánah.) Treasure, riches, wealth.

Khlái, n./. A nurse.

Khlain, n.m. A farmyard. (Also khlwárá.)

Khlánu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to melt; f.-i, pl.-é.

Khláwá, n.m. One who looks after a chief's son.

Khlwárá, n.m. See Khlain.

Khmár, n.m. See Kmhar.

Khobáni, n.f. Apricot.

Khodnu, v.t. re. To dig, to excavate; f.-i, pl.-é. Khodia or khdodíró, c.p. Having dug or excavated. Khod-dá -r -u, m.; f. -i, pl. -é. pre. par. Digging. Khodu-hundu or -á, m.; f. -i, pl. é. pas. par. Dug.

Khoh, n.f. (P.) A big pit.

Khó'j, n.m. Trace. -láná, v.t. re. To trace; f. -i, pl -é.

Khojnu, v.t. re. To trace, to seek, to search; f. -i, pl. -é. Khojdá or -u, m.; f. -i. pl. -é. pre. par. Seeking. Khojíá or khojíró, c.p. having sought. Khoju-huňdu or -á, m.; f. i, pl. -é. pas. par. Sought.

Kholnu, v.t. re. To open, to release, to set free; f. -i, pl. -é. Kholdá, pre. par. Opening. Kholiá or kholíró, c.p. Having opened. Kholu-hundu or -á m. f. -í, pl. -é. pas. par.

Opened.

Khonu, v.t. re. (H. khoná.) To spoil, to make unfit; f.-i. pl.-é.

Khoňdá, pre. par. Spoiling. Khoía or khoíró, c.p. Having spoilt. Khou-huňdu, pas. par. Spoilt.

Khopá, n.m. See Garí.

Kho⁵r, n.m. pl. Walnuts. -ru-dál, n.m. A walnut tree. -khelne, v.i. re. To play with walnuts. -jhárne, v.i. re. To pluck walnuts.

Khorá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Lame. -honu, v.i. ir. To be-

come lame. -karná, v.t. ir. To make one lame.

Khó't, n.m. Defect, imperfection, fault -lágná, v.i. re. To be afflicted with an imperfection (from a deity). -láná, v.i. re. To blame. -thátná, v.i. re. To set one free from an imperfection.

Khotá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. (H.) Wicked, imperfect, faulty.

Khotá, n.m. (H.) An ass.

Khotr, n.m. A pit, a hole. -parná, v.i. re. To look like a hole. -paná, v.i. re. To make a hole.

Khotrí, n.f. A hole, for playing a game with walnuts. -khelni, v.i. re. To play at throwing walnuts into a hole.

Khoúwanu, v.i. re. To be spoilt, to be unfit; /. -i, pl. -é.

Khowá, n.m. (H.) (1) The substance obtained by boiling milk. (2) v.p. Spoiled, made unfit.

Khowanu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to spoil; f. -i, pl. -é.

Khowi-janu, v.i. ir. To be spoiled; f. -i, pl. -é.

Khrab, ad. (P. kharáb.) Bad, wicked.

Khrábá, n.m. (P. kharábá.) Ruin, destruction.

Khrábí n.f. (P. kharábí.) Difficulty. -honi, v.i. ir. To be difficult.

Khrád, n.m. (H. kharád.) A lathe. -o-dá-láná, v.t. re. To sharpen by turning on a lathe.

Khrádí, n.m. A turner on a lathe.

Khrádnu, v.t. re. (H. kharádná.) To turn on a lathe.

Khrain, n.f. A festival observed by the Kanets in Magh. It is a ceremony just like a jágrá, the only difference being that in a jágrá the village deity remains for a night at the house of the person who invites it, whereas in the khrain the deity returns the same day to its temple.

Khrárnu, v.t. re. To dig, to excavate; f. -í, pl. -é.

Khréban, n.f. A sling used for throwing small stones to frighten monkeys off the crops. -báni or báhni, v.i. re. To sling a stone.

Khrichnu, v.t. re. To erase, to excoriate.

Khrid, n.f. (P. kharid.) Buying, a purchase.

Khridar, n.m. (P. kharid-dar.) A purchaser, one who buys.

Khridi-denu, v.i. ir. To have purchased; f. -i, pl. é. Khridnu, v.t. re. (P. kharidna.) To purchase, buy.

Khriúňth, khryúňth, n.m. The uppermost storey of a house.

Khúd or khudd, n.m. A roof of mud, the mud roof (of a house). [said."

Khud, ad (P. kbud.) Self. Se khud bolo thá: "He himself

Khudd, n.m. See Khúd.

Khuláwnu, v.t. re. See Kholáwnu.

Khulí-jánu, v.i. ir. To get opened; j. -i, pl -é.

Khulnu, v.i. re. To be opened; f. -i, pl. -é.

Khulu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Loosened, not tight.

Khuňdá, n.m. A wooden peg to fasten cattle to.

Khundi, n.f. A stick for playing ball.

Khuňdu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Blunt.

Khungi, n.f. Cough. -awni, v.i. re. To cough. -honi, v.i. ir. To suffer from cough.

Khuňgnu, v.i. re. To cough.

Khur, n.m. (H.) Hoof.

Khurchnu, v.i. re. To scratch, to erase; f. -i, pl -é.

Khurknu, v.i. re. To itch; f. -i, pl. -é.

Khuti, n.f. pl. and sing. Legs. -lani, v.i. ir. To hold one's legs.

Khutru, n.m. pl. Feet.

Khutru, n.m. pl. Small feet.

Khwás, n.f. A concubine. -rákhni, v.i. re. To have a concubine.

Khwé'r, n.m. Offering butter to a godling.

Khyál, n.m. (P. khiál.) A thought. -karná, v.t. ir. To think.

Khyáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to eat; f. -i, pl. -é.

Ki, con. Either: as Ki sé delá ki sé delé: "Either he or they will go."

Kíjnu, v.i. re. To rot. -u-hundu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Rotten.

Kíl, n.f. A long kind of basket. (Also kiltá.)

Kíl, n.f. (H.) A nail.

Kilai ? adv. Why ? (Basháhr.) Tú kilai áwu? "Why did you come?"

Kilnu, v.t. re. To stake, to pin; f. -i, pl. -é.

Kiltá, n.m. A long kind of basket for carrying load.

Kimu, n.m. Mulberry. -rá-dál, n.m. A mulberry tree.

Kindá? Kindu? adv. m.; f.-í, pl.-é? Where?

Kinu ? adv. How? (Basháhr.)

Kiňyáň, v. pst. Did; f -í, pl. -é.

Kíň-yiň, pro. See Kéň-yiň, v.p.t. f. Did.

Kishu? adv. (1) How? (2) ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -e? What kind of?

Kiská? or -u? adv. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. To which side?

Kjewnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to rot; f. -i, pl. é.

Kjyúwtu, n.m. See Khairú.

Klaiwnu, v.t. re. To blacken; f. -1, pl. -é.

Kmhár, n.m. (S. Kumbhakára.) A potter.

Kmárg, n.m. (S. Kumárga.) A wrongful act. -karná, v.i. ir. To act wrongfully.

Knyai, n.m. A hue and cry, a noise. -páná, v.i. re. To make a noise.

Kochí, n.f. The name of a dialect spoken in Basháhr. As: Inu kinu chapro? "How do you say so?"

Kodá, n.m. (S. Kodrava:) A species of grain eaten by the poorer people. (Paspalum kora.)

Kodů, n.m. The navel.

Koklá, n.f. (S. Kokila.) The blackbird.

Ko'l, n.m. pl. A kind of pulse, or bean. (Dolichos catjang.)

Kolan, n.f. A low-caste woman, or the wife of a Kolí.

Kolí, n.m. A low-caste man. cf. Dágí of Basháhr.

Kolth, n.m. pl. A kind of hill pulse. (Dolichos biflorus.)

Koltháni, n.m. (Fr. kolth and pání.) A kind of soup made of kolth by boiling, useful for a cold and cough.

Koltú, n.m. The son of a Kolí; -ti, n.f. The daughter of a Kolí. Kon or kún, n.m. pl. Weevils. -lágne, v.i. re. To be eaten by weevils.

Koná, n.m (H. kona.) A corner.

Kónd kaund n.m. A big silver cylinder used to carry the village deity in when taking him to some other village.

Kóp, n.m. (S. Kopa.) Anger, indignation. -karná, v.i. ir. To be

angry.

Kór, n.f. A bribe. Muweň ká kor kháia? "Have I accepted a bribe?" -dení v.i. re. To give a bribe. -kháni or -lani, v.i. re. and ir. To accept a bribe. -á. n m. One who accepts a bribe. (Syn. bashtáňg.)
Korá, -u, ad. m.; /. -í, pl. -é. Plain, unused.

Kórh, n.f. (S. Kushtha.) Leprosy. -lágni, v.i. re. To suffer from leprosy.

Korhí, n.m. and f. A leper, one who suffers from leprosy.

Korí-paríti, n.f. One-sided love, unrequited affection.

Kót, n.m. (1) A fortress. (2) A coat.

Kothá, n.m. A granary. (Basháhr.)

Kohtí, n.f. (1) A bungalow. (2) A granary into which revenue in kind was paid. (Kullú, Suket, Kumhársain and Mandí.) (3) A group of hamlets, called bhoj in Sirmûr and Bharauli.

Kothiálá, n.m. (H. kothíwálá.) (1) A treasurer, called Bhdári in the Simlá hills. (2) A storekeeper. (Maňdí, Suket, and Basháhr.)

Kotnu, v.t. re. To dig, to excavate; f. -i, pl. é.

Kpúr, n.m. (S. Karpúra.) Camphor.

Kráí, n.f. (1) Hardship. (2) An iron cooking vessel.

Kráh, n.m. (H. karáh.) A large iron vessel for cooking.

Krail, n.m. A kind of tree, the flowers of which are used as a vegetable. A species of ebony, (Bauhinia variegata.) Kóvidára in Sanskrit and Kachnár in Hindí.

Kráňdá, n.m.; pl. -é. The cone of Indian corn or maize, as well as its straw.

Krár, n.m. (P. qarár.) An agreement. -karná, v.i. ir. To agree. Krárá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. Hard or strict.

Krá't, n.m. A kind of bird with a long tail like a jay.

Krátá, n.m. (Fr. kukrí, maize, and átá, flour.) Maize-flour.

Kráuk, n.m. See kámdár.

Kreňyíň, n.f. A kind of bird like the mainá.

Krhonu, v.t. re. To boil (of milk, curry, etc.).

Krigar, n.m. (H. kárigar.) A workman, an artist.

Krígri, n./. (H. kárígarí.) Workmanship, skill, artistic work.

Króch, n.m. A sharp stone fit to pierce. -lágná, v.i. re. To be pierced with a sharp stone.

Kródh, n.m. (S. Krodha, anger.) Anger, indignation. -upjná v.i. re. To be enraged, to be indignant or angry. -karná v.i. ir. To be angry.

Krukhá or -u. ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. Rough.

Kruňdá, n.m. pl. -é. A kind of shrub bearing black berries.

Kruňdu, n.m. See Kruňdá.

Ksái, n.m. (H. kasaí.) A butcher.

Kshátú, n.m. See Kashátú.

Ksháw. n.m. Tightness. -nu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to tie.

Kshokrá, n.m. The payment of one rupee on agreeing to undertake the oath called dib. -páṇá. v.i. re. To pay the sum of one rupee on agreement to take an oath.

Ktán, ad. pro. See Katán.

Kthár, kathár or kuthár, n.m. A grain box.

Kthírí, n.j. (Fr. H. kâth-kí kíri.) A kind of long worm, green in colour, with many eyes on its back, found in green plants.

Kthisht, ad. Polluted, unclean. -honu, v.i. ir. To be polluted. Ktírá, n.m. pl. -é. Scissors; f. -i. A small kind of scissors. (Also

ktírtu or -ti.)

Ktnoshtú, n.m. A stand for the spindle (tâklu).

Ktráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to cut (with scissors).

Kú, n.m. (S. Kúpa, a well.) A well, a pit. Proverb:—

Mákhe khaní kú, Tiňdá páî tú.

"A well was dug for me, But you are cast into it."

(Used when a complainant is found guilty.)

Kuá, n.m. (S. Kupa.) A well (of water). (Also khuá.)

Kúb, n.m. A hump, crookedness.

Kubrá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Humpbacked.

Kudál, n.m. A large hoe. -i, n.f. A hoe.

Kuftu, n.m. A small pond.

Kújó, n.f. A kind of white wild rose.

Kúkr, n.m. (S. Kukkura.) A dog. -i, n.f. A bitch.

Kukrá, n.m. A cock pheasant. -i, n.f. A hen pheasant.

Kukrí, n.f. Maize, Indian corn. (Also chhálli.)

Kúl, n.f. (S. Kulyá.) A stream, a canal or channel.

Kumal, kumli, n.m. and f. pl. Sprouts. (S. Kudmala, a new bud.)

[kumr.]

Kumbr, A kind of grass bearing some pin-like thorns. (Also

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Kumļi, n.f. See Kumaļ.

Kumr, n.m. See Kumbr.

Kún, n.m. pl. See Kón.

Kun? pro. Who? Kunie? By whom?

Kund, n.m. (S. Kunda.) A pool, a deep hole in a stream.

Kuňdalí, n.f. (S.) A horoscope.

Kunie? pro. See Kun.

Kuň-íň, kuň-yíň, n.m. pl. Tribes. Tháro-, a term for the Kotí State. 'The 18 tribes.'

Kunká, n.m. A grain or seed.

Kunká, -u, ad. m.; f.-i, pl.-é. Single, one-sided.

Kunú, n.m. A heap of rice at harvest. -láná, v.i. re. To heap up the rice harvest.

Kuň-yíň, n.m. See Kuň-íň.

Kurí, n.f. A girl, a daughter. (Biláspúr, Kángrá, Kunihár and Bághal.)

Kur-r, n.m. A timber log placed over the joint of the roof of a village deity's temple. -charhná or -lágná or -láná, v.i. re.

To place a timber log over a temple. This is a grand ceremony, at which a great many sacrifices are performed and a grand feast is offered to all who are present.

Kút, n.m. Revenue.

Kuthár, n.m. See Kthár.

Kutnu, v.t. re. (H. kútná.) To pound; f. -i, pl. -é.

Kwai? kwé? adv. Why?

Kwáli, n.f. Up-hill, an ascent.

Kwashnu, v.t. re. To excite, to move; f. -1, pl. -é.

Kwé! adv. See Kwai!

Kyaiň, pro. See Keň-yíň.

Kyári, n.f. See Kairi.

Kzaí, ad. Quarrelsome.

L

l.á. an affix added to a verb in the future tense, as: Se delá, "He will go."

Ládku, n.m. A ball of woollen thread for making woollen cloth. Lácká, n.m. (P. iláqah.) Territory.

Lág, n.f. (1) Competition. (2) Enmity. -lágni, v.i. re. To prevail (of a disease).

Lagan-ferá, n.m. A wedding ceremony.

Lagáwnu, v.t. re. (H. lagáná.) To apply, to rub; f. -i, pl. -é.

Lági-parnu, v.t. re. To begin, to take in hand, to commence.
 Lágni-bán-ni, n.f. Λ kind of oath, taken not to proceed one against another.

Lágnu, v.t. re. (1) To begin. (2) To bother.

Lágú, n.m. An enemy. -honú, v.i. ir. To be hostile to or against.
 Láirá, n.m. The produce of the first year's cultivation. Cf.
 Modá, used in Mahlóg State.

Lá'i. n.t. (S. Lajjá.) Shame. -áwni, v.i. re. To be ashamed. -lágni or -karni, v.i. ir. To be ashamed.

Lajá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Loose.

Lakhnu, v.t. re. (1) To mark, to observe. (2) To cross, to ford (a river).

Laklauli, n.f. See Luktli.

Lákrá, n.m. A log, timber. -i, n.f. Fuel. -e, pl. Logs.

Lakráňgná, n.m. (Fr. lakr, wood, ugháwnu, to collect). A tax levied on the death of a chief at the rate of 8 annas per house. (Basháhr State.)

Lámbá, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -ė. (1) Long, having length. (2) n.m.

A láma. (3) A snake.

Lámbar, n.m. Cooked food for cattle. -dená, v.t. ir. To give cooked grain as food to cattle.

Lambknu, v.i. re. To approach near; f.-i, pl.-é.

Lámbú, n.m. The long leaf of an esculent root or potato.

Lamchátá, n.m. A prophet of lower grade, who passes on oracles received through a deity's inspired representative to the worshippers, if many of the latter are of low castes: (Oldham's "Sun and Serpent").

Lánká, n.f. (S. Lanká.) Ceylon or Râvan's abode.

Lánkurá-bír, n.m. A deity residing with Bhímá-kálí of Saráhan. in the Bashahr State. He is equivalent to Bhairab.

Lánti-rá-kámo, n.m. A disgraceful act.

Lanu, v.t. ir. To take. p.t. Lowá, luwá.

Lánu, v.t. re. To put on, to wear; f. -i, pl. -é. Láňwáň, ad. m.; -wíň, f. wéň, pl. Helpless, poor.

Lapét, n.m. A circle. -nu, v.i. re. To fold up; f. -i. pl. -é.

Lapóghar, ad. A fool, unwise.

Lárá, n.m. A bridegroom.

Laráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to fight; f. -i, pl. -é.

Lárí, n.f. A bride. Also used for a Rájpút's wife.

Larnu, v.t. re. To fight, to quarrel; f. -i, pl. é. Lardá, pre. par. Fighting. Laría or Laríro, c.p. Having fought. Lará, pas. ten. Fought. Laru-hundu, pas. par. Fought, quarrelled.

Latká, n.m. Fashion, mode.

Lau, n.f. A creeper, a creeping plant in general.

Láumeň. v. pl. We will fix or attach.

Lebú, n.m. One who takes. (Syn. Leú.) Ledar, n.f. A festival observed on the 1st of Ashárh month.

Lé'j, n.f. (H.) (S. Rajju.) A rope.

Lekhá, n.m. (H.) An account. -karná, v.i ir. To count. -nírauná, v.i. ir. To be innumerable or countless.

Lé'n, n.m. (H.) Credit. -dén, n.m. A transaction.

Lép, n.m. (H.) External application of a medicine.

Lé³r, n.f. A cry. -páni or -dení, v.i. re. and ir. To cry, to weep. Lét, n.f. (H.) Lying down. -láni or -nu, v.i. re. To lie down.

Leú, n.m. and f. A taker, one who takes.

Lháwnu, v.t. re. To shake. Máň ná lháwai: "Don't shake me."

Lhéf, n.f. (H. liháf.) A quilt.

Lhushawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to plunder; f.-i, pl.-é.

Lhushnu, v.t. re. To rob, to plunder; f.-i, pl.-é.

Li, lih, n.f. A term for an area of land equal to 8 bighás.

Lí, aff. A feminine future affix, as: Se dewli, "She will go."
Likhat, n.f. A writing. (Also the tax levied at one rupee per house in Kotí State as a charge for writing accounts.)

Likháwat, n.m. (H.) The act of writing.

Likhí-kamáié, adv. By accident. Proverb:-

Likhí-kamáié lágú dhól, Jetné uthá ubhá tetné lágú hór.

"By an accident a rolling stone hit me,
As I got up, there came down another to hit me."

Likhnu, v.t. re. (H. likhná.) To write; f.-í, pl.-é.

Líkhó, n.f. pl. The louse's eggs. -parni, v.i. re. To suffer from louse's eggs.

Liňdá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. An animal that has lost its tail, tailless.

Lingurí, n.f. An edible fern.

Lipái, n.f. The act of plastering.

Lipnu, v.t. re. (H. lipná.) To plaster, to clean; f. -i. pl. -é.

Lir, n.f. (1) A piece of cloth. (2) A rag.

Líú-karo-kalíú, v. Are dazzling.

Lmárí, n.f. (E. almira.) An almira or cupboard.

Lóbh, n.m. (S. Lobha.) Fondness. -lágná, v.i. re. To be fond.

Lohá, n.m. (H.) Iron.

Lohál, n.m. An agricultural instrument.

Lohú, n.m. (H.) Blood.

Lokhr, n.m. pl. Agricultural instruments, such as the ploughshare, etc. -láná, v.i. re. To cohabit. -láne, v.t. re. To sharpen agricultural instruments.

Long, n.m. pl. (1) Cloves (Myristica cariophyllata). (2) A

nose stud.

Lor, n.f. The male pudenda.

Lotá, n.m. (H.) A water jug. -lún, n.m. An oath in which the parties put some salt in a water-jug, and solemnly promise not to abandon their plan: if anyone works against it he will be destroyed like the salt in the water.

Lothá-lothí, n.f. The act of pulling each other. -honí, v.i. ir.

To be dragged one by another.

Lotrí, n.f. A small water-jug.

Lowá, v.p.t. See Luwá.

Luthnu, v.t. re. To pull, to drag; f. -i, pl. -é.

Luch-bareli, n.f. The plant called Lady's bedstraw.

Luchhnu, v.t. re. To pull off; f. -i, pl. -é.

Lugrú, n.m. The ceremony observed at the time of a child's eating grain for the first time. (Basháhr).

Lujbud, ad. m. and f. Pendulous and shaking. A Riddle:—

Poró áwu kuktu lujbudé kán, Mâň nâ kh<u>ui</u> kuktuwá áň terá jajmán.

"There came a dog with hanging, quivering ears,
Don't bite me, O pup, I am your customer."

(Reply: 'The forget-me-not.')

Lukáwnu, v.t. re. (H. lukáná.) To conceal, to hide; f. -1, pl. é. Luknu, v.i. re. To hide, to be concealed; f. -1, pl. -é.

Luku-luku, adv. Secretly.

Luktlí, n./. Fickleness, unsteadiness, inconstancy. -lágni, v.i. re. To be inconstant. (Syn. laklaulí.)

Lún, n.m. (S. Lavana.) Salt.

Lund, n.m. A wicked man. -nu, v.i. ir. To be against.

Lúng, n.f. Sprouts; pl.- \acute{o} .

Luňkr, n.m. See Lor.

Lunku or -á, ad.m.; f. i, pl. -é. Salty.

Lun-nu, v.t. re. To cut, to lop; /. -i, pl. -é.

Luwá, v.p.t. Took. (Also lowá.)

Lwád, n.f. (H. <u>aul</u>ád.) Offspring. -honi, v.i. ir. To be blessed with offspring. (Syn. ágat.)

Lwainé, n.f. pl. A kind of grass that grows with wheat.

Lwál, n.m. (H. uchhál.) A jump. -dená, v.i. ir. To jump over.

M

Má, n.f. Mother. [Also an affix added to a verb in the future tense for the first person singular. As: Aň karu-má. "I will do." Hámeň karu-mé. "We will do." Hámi karu-mi. We (women) will do.]

Mábáo, mábáw, n.m. Parents.

Máchh, n.m. A man, a person. (Also Michh.)

Machan, n m. A small hut erected on a tree to watch crops.
(Kângra and Hill States of Simla)

Máchchh, ad. f. A woman or any female animal whose offspring never lives long. (From Sanskrit Mritavatsá.)

Máchhli, n.f. A fish. -gháni, v.i. re. To fish.

Máchni, v.i. re. f. To sound or resound.

Madákri. n.f. The head of a sheep or goat.

Máfí, n.f. A free grant of land.

Magh, n.m. pl. The long pepper.

Maghényin, n.f. See Mugoh. (Kullu.)

Maghérá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Dear, costly, of high price. Magr, n.m. pl. A term for the fortnight, the last week of Póh and the first week of Mágh. It is supposed to be the time of intense cold and heavy snowfall.

Máh, másh n.m. pl. Black pulse.

Maháráj, mahárájeá, n.m. (S.) O great king. A term of address to a Hill Chief.

Mahr, n.m. A collector of revenue. (Bilâspur.)

Mahrai, n.f. A headman's circle. (Mahlog.)

Mairá, n.m. (1) Love. (2) Eagerness.

Majá, n.m. Pleasure, comfort. -áwná, v. i. re. To be pleased.

Majáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to cleanse; f. -i, $p\hat{l}$. -é.

Maje-rá, -ru, ad m f. -ri, pl. -re. Fine, pretty.

Majíre, n.m. pl. (1) Stripes or a rim. (2) A kind of musical bells.

Majkáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to rend or tear; f. -i, pl. -é Majknu, masknu, v.t. re. To crush; f. -i, pl. -é.

Májnu, v.t. re. To cleanse, to clean; f. -i, pl. -é.

Majnú, n.m. A willow tree. Syn. besó.

Mákhan, n.m. See Chopar.

Makhaul, n.m. Jest. -karná, v.i. re. To make a jest.

Mákhi (S. Makshiká.) n.f. pl. Flies. (H. Makkhí.)

Makhir, mkhir, n.m. Honey.

Mákhtá, n.m. See Má'n.

Malái, n.f. Origin or foundation

Málak, n.m. (H.) Husband, owner master, possessor.

Málé, n.m. Fighting. -áwnu, v.t. re. To fight.

Malek malekan, n.m. A curse on one's mother, abuse of one's mother.

Málpunyá, n.f. A festival that takes place at the full moon of September. Cows are worshipped and fed. In the night the fair called Bláj takes place, at Koți.

Málpúrá, n.m. A kind of sweet bread; pl. -é.

Málwá, n.m.; pl. -é. The wild pigeon.

Mám, mámá, n.m. Maternal uncle. (The former form is used in Basháhr); f.-í. Maternal aunt.

Mámlá, n.m. Revenue, ground-rent, tax.

Man, n.m. (S. Manas.) The mind.

Máň, pro Me or to me.

Má'n, n.m. Complaint. (Syn. Mákhtá.)

Manál, n.m. The wild pheasant.

Maná-manié-jhurnu, v.i. re. To pine in love.

Maná-manié-rauni, v.t. ir. To disappoint.

Manawnu, v.t. re. (H. manana.) To conciliate; f.-i, pl-é.

Mandal, n.m. (S.) A temple. (2) A place painted for a religious ceremony.

Mangal, n.m. (S. Mangala.) (1) The planet Mars. (2) Tuesday.
(3) -4 mukhí n.m. pl. A term for the musicians called Túrí.

Maňgálí, n.j. A dish.

Mangawnu, v.t. re. To send for; f. -i, pl.-é.

Mangi, n.f. An earthen pot of middle size used to keep milk or clarified butter.

Maňgní, n.f. Betrothal.

Mángní, mánguní; n.f. pl. Bugs.

Mángnu, v.t. re. (H. mángná.) To ask for, to beg; f.-í, pl.-é.

Manhgheru, ad. See Magheru.

Mani, n.f. The mulberry fruit.

Mánj, pre. Between. -parnu; v.i. re. To go between.

Máňjá, n.m. (H.) A cot.

Máňjawnu, v.t. re. See Májawnu.

Manjié, phrase. In the middle or centre.

Máňjnu, v.t. re. See Májnu.

Máňjrí, n.f. A mat.

Máňjtu, n.m A small mat.

Mánu, n.m. A man. (Kángrá.) Proverb. Mánu mánu áňtrá, Koi hírá, koi káňkrá. "Men are of different kinds, some are stones and some diamonds."

Manru, n.m. The mind.

Máolá, máwlá, n.m. The mother's parents' home.

Mapásh, n.f. (H. napáí.) Survey. -láni, v.i. ir. To survey.

Mapawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to measure; f. i, pl. -é.

Mápnu or mepnu, v.t. re. To measure, to survey; f.-1, pl. -é.

Mará-huňdá, pre. par. Dead; f.-í, pl.-é.

Marák, n.m. One who beats, a beater.

Maráwi-jánu, v.i. ir. To be beaten; f.i, pl.-é.

Maráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to beat; f.-í, pl.-é.

Marg, n.m. The death ceremony. -láná, v.i. re. To perform the last duties.

Marj, n.m. (P. marz.) Illness, sickness, disease.

Marlá, a phrase. 'O you who are to die,' term of abuse or endearment; f.-i, pl.-é.

Marm, n.m. (S. Marma.) Secret.

Marmeli, n.f. A plant bearing leaves like those of spinach.

Marn, n.m. (H. maran.) Death. -honá, v.i. ir. To die. -láná, v.i re. To perform the last offices.

Mární, v.t. re. To cohabit.

Márnu, v.t. re. (H. márná.) To beat, to hit.

Marnu, v.i. re. To die; f.-i, pl.-é.

Marornu, v.t. re. To twist, to writhe, to contort; f.-i, pl.-é.

Máru or -á, ad. m; f.-ì, pl.-é. Feeble, weak, having no strength.

Marú, ad. Dying.

Más, n.m. (S. Máňsa.) Flesh.

Maser-bain, n.f. The daughter of one's mother's sister.

Maser-bhái, n.m. The son of one's mother's sister.

Mashárá, n.m. A small broom used to plaster the floor with. (Also Mashártá.)

Másí, n.f. A step-mother.

Masknu, v.t. re. To crush; f.-1, pl.-6.

Mast, ad. (1) Abundant. (Basháhr.) (2) (H.) Mad (as an elephant.)

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Masúr, n.m. pl. (8. Masúriká.) A sort of pulse or lentil. (Ervum hirsutum, and Cicer lens.)

Matei, n.f. A step-mother.

Matél, n.f. A council convened to change a mautá. -lágni, v.i. re To be against a mautá.

Máthá, n.m. The forehead. -tekná, v.i. re. To bow down, to salute.

Mathéi, n.f. (H. mithái.) Sweetmeat.

Máthrá, v. ad. m. -f. -í, pl. -é. Younger, smaller.

Máthu or -á, ad.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Small, little.

Mátí, n.f. (H. mattí.) Earth, clay.

Matolri, n f. A swallow. pl. -i.

Matyání, n.f. The wife of a mautá.

Mau, n.m. A free grant, a jágír.

Máú, n.m. A bee. (Alike in sing. and pl.) Mauhrú, n.m. A kind of oak, the holly oak.

Maulí, n.f. A kind of coloured thread used at marriages, etc.

Maunsá, n.m. The husband of one's mother's sister.

Maunsí, n.f. Mother's sister. Proverb: Sákho ri maunsi, Saude ri karerí. "Mother's sister by relationship, but very keen at a bargain."

Mauná, n.m. Wrist.

Mautâ, n.m. see; Kâmdâr.

Mauto, n.f. (H. maut.) Death.

Mawi, n.m. A term for the original inhabitants, whose descendants are still found in the Simla hills, i.g., movanna.

Meghulá, n.m. (S. Megha.) A cloud.

Mehrái, n.f. A headman's circle. (Mahlóg.)

Mekh, n.m. (S. Mesha, a ram.) (1) A ram. (2) The zodiacal sign of Aries.

Mekkh, n.f. A nail (of iron or wood.) -marm, v.i. re. 10 object.

Mél, n.m. (H.) Junction, union. -honá, v.i. ir. To be on friendly terms. -karná, v.i. ir. To get on good terms with.

Melá, n.m. (H.) A fair. Syn. Ját.

Meló, n.f. pl. Meetings. Khokhri-ri-melo. Fighting with swords.

Meňhná, n.m. An ironical speech. -dená, v.i. ir. To speak ironically. -sun-ná, v.i. re. To hear taunting words.

Meňhnerí, n.f. A taunting speech.

Mép, n.m. Measurement.

Mepáwnu, v.t. re. See Mapáwnu.

Mepņu, v.t. re. See Mápņu.

Mé'r, n.m. The roofing of a house. -dená, v.i. ir. To roof.

Meru or -a, pro. m. f.--1, pl. é. My, mine, of me.

Metawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to spoil. Metnu, v.t. re. To spoil, to make useless; f.-i, pl.-é.

Mewá, n.m. pl. (H.) Fruits.

Mhajňsh, n.f., (S. Mahishi.) A she-buffalo. **6**. n.m. A male buffalo. (Syn. jhotá).

Mhájan, n.m. (S. Mahájana.) A shop-keeper.

Mhangu, ad. See Mahangu.

Mháru or -á. pro. m. f. i, pl. -é. My, mine, of me.

Mháthrá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-e. Small, little, young.

Mhím, n./. A war, battle. (P. muhim.)

Mhín, ad. (H. mahin.) Thin.

Mhíná, n.m. (H. mahíná.) A month, the twelfth part of a year.

Mhitnu, mitnu, v.t. re. To meet; f.-i, pl.-é.

Millori, n.f. (S. Amla-loniká.) Wood sorrel (oxalis corniculata)

Mhóru or mahru, n.m. The holly tree.

Mhroí, n.f. A kind of dove.

Mhúrt, n.m. (S. Muhúrta.) An auspicious time, a lucky me. Mhwerá, u, n.m. The image of a deity. Dim. mhwertus m.m. A

small image.

Miáň, miyáň, n.m. A word used in addressing a chiếf's brother or kith and kin. (From P. miáň.)

Micháwni, v.t. re. To cause or allow to shut the eyes.

Michh, n.m. See Máchh.

Michni, v.i. re. To shut the eyes.

Miláwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to join; f. -1, pl -é.

Milni, n.f. A ceremony observed at a wedding.

Milnu, v.t. re. (1) To meet. (2) To visit. (3) To call upon.

Minawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to pinch or rub; f. -i, pl. -é. Mingni, n.f. pl. The ordure of a sheep or goat or wild goat.

Minká, n.m. A frog or toad, (S. Mandúka.)

Min-nu, v.t. re. To pinch, to rub; f.-i, pl.-é.

Min-nu, v.t. re. To measure; f.-i, pl.-é. A verb most commonly used in measuring clarified butter in a pot equal to one seer and six chitáks in weight.

Míňtu, n.m.; f.-í, pl.-é. A lamb. [chitaks Minuwáň-sér, n.m. A measure of clarified butter equal to 11

Mirch, n.f. pl. -o. Red pepper, the chilli.

Mírí, ad. The first to play.

Mirnu, v.i. re. To begin, used in a game played with walnuts.

Misá, n.m. Mixed corn, the poor man's food.

Misháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to mix together.

Misnu, v.t. re. To mix together; f.-i, pl.-é.

Missá, n.m. Flour of mixed corn or grain.

Mithá, n.m. (H. methi.) A kind of vegetable.

Mithá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Sweet.

Mitnu, v.t. re. See Mhitnu.

Mlái, c.p. f. Asking the price of; m.-yá. pl.-é.

Mnichhá, n.f. (from man, mind and ichchhá. desire.) Desire, wish.

Moál, n.f. A curse on, or abuse of, one's mother. (Also mwál.) Modá, n.m. The produce of the cultivation of the first year. (Mahlog.)

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Moi, n.f. A kind of plough to smooth land after sowing.
-deni, v.i. ir. To smooth the land with a plough

Mokháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to suffer; f.-i, pl.-é.

Mokhnu, v.i. re. (1) To suffer. (2) To undergo, to bear; f.-i, pl.-é.

Mokhni-parni, w.i. re. To suffer, to undergo, to bear; m. -a. pl. -é.

Mó'l, n.m. (H. mol.) Price. -e-lanu, v.t. ir. To purchase. -e- denu, v.t. ir. To give at a price, to sell; f. -i, pl. -é.

Moláwnu, v.t. re. To ask a price; f-i, pl.-é.

Mór, n.m. (S. Mayúra.) A peacock.

Mor, n.m. The way in which a thing should be folded, -nu, v.t. To fold up.

Morchá, n.m. (1) Intrenchment. An advance guard. (2) A band.

Mórmuthá, n.m. A bundle of peacock's tail-feathers, set in a gold or silver handle, to whisk off the flies, as an emblem or insigne of princely rank.

Mosháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to wipe; /.-i, pl.-é.

Moshnu, v.t. re. To wipe; f.-i, pl.-é.

Mrák, n.m. See Marák.

Mrárí, n f. A wild hawk. (Also mrerí.)

Mrekáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to twist; f.-i, pl.-é.

Mreknu, v.t. re. To twist; f. -i, pl. -é.

Mrig, n.m. (S. Mriga, a deer.) A wild animal such as a leopard,

bear, barking deer, etc.

Mrig-satáí, n.f. A term for the fortnight, from 22nd of Jéth to 8th of Hár. It is believed that rain in this fortnight is not beneficial, but that sunshine in it is of great benefit to the crops.

Mrig-shir, n.m. Name of a nachhattar or constellation.

Mṛin, n.f. A bad smell, such as arises from cremating a dead body.

Mthlaini, n.f. A cremation ground. (Every village has its own cremating ground.)

Múch, n.m. (S. Mútra, urine.) Urine.

Mucháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to make water; f. i, pl. -ė.

Muchí, n.f. The act of making water. -lágni, v.i. re. To want to make water. Syn. Chhotí.

Much-nu, v.i. re. To make water.

Muchhó, n.m. pl. See Gunjo.

Mudá, n.m. A term for the right to a woman.

Mudokhar, n.m. (1) The head. (2) The skull. (Also muňdokhar.)

Muhálá, n.m. Bombardment. -chhárná, v.i. re. To bombard.

Muí, ad. f. Dead.

Mujrá, n.m. An audience. -karná, v.i. ir. To obtain an audience.

Mukán, n.m. The appointed day on which all the relations come to the house where a death has taken place, to pay a sum of money called kaurí-rotí.

Mukáwnu, v.t. re. To finish; f.-í, pl.-é.

Mukháli, n.f. The act of washing the mouth, hands and feet.
-karni, v.i. ir. To wash the mouth, hands and feet.

Mukhiyá, mukhiá, n.m. The headman of a village. (Basháhr.) Muknu, v.t. re. To be no more, to finish, to be ended; f.-í, vl.-é.

Muktú, ad. Abundant, too much, sufficient.

Múl, n.m. (S. Múla, origin.) (1) Origin. (2) Also the name of a nachhattar or constellation.

Múle, pre. Under.

Múlere, ad. Original.

Mulí, n.f. (H.) A radish.

Muluk, n.m. (H. mulk.) A country. -kiyá, n.m. A country-man.

Múm, n.m. (H. mom.) Wax -jámá, n.m. Wax-cloth.

Múnd, n.m. (S Munda, head.) The head. -nhánu, v.i. re. To bathe after menses.

Muňdá, ad.m. f.-í, pl.-é. Upset, reversed, contrary. -karná, v.i. ir. To upset, to turn back.

Mundar, n.m. pl. The act of prohibiting any impious act at a fair called Blá'j (Bali-râj). -bándhne, v.i. re. (1) To order not to do a sinful act at the Blá'j fair. (2) To offer

protection. -kholne, v.i. re. To set free.

Mundé-nagáre-dewnu, v.i. re. To be totally defeated.

Muňdí, muňdrí, n.j. A ring (of a finger).

Mundokhar, n.m. See Mudokhar.

Muňdri, n.f. Ring (of a finger).

Mundro-bán-né, v.i. re. See Mundar.

Múňg, muňgí, n.m. and f. A sort of kidney-bean (*Phaseolus munyo*). A kind of green pulse generally given to the sick. Muňgí, n.f. See Múňg.

Munní, n.f. A girl or daughter. (Biláspúr and Kángrá.)

Munnú, n.m. A boy. (Biláspúr and Kángrá.)

Murárá, n.m. Half-burnt fuel.

Múrí, n.f. Roasted grain for chewing. -chaň-ni, v.i. re. To prepare roasted grain, to roast grain.

Murkh, n.m. and f. (S. Múrkha, illiterate.) An illiterate man, a fool.

Murkú, n.m. A kind of small earring. -i. n.f. A small nosering.

Murlí, n.f. (S. Muralí.) A flute, a pipe (of music).

Murt, n.f. (S. Múrtí, an image.) (1) An image, an idol. (2) A picture.

Mushá, n.m. (S. Múshaka.) A mouse or rat; f.-í.

Mush!, n.m. (S. Mushala.) A pestle, a club, a mace.

Mushl-dhár-barkhá, n.f. Heavy rain. Raining cats and dogs.

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Mushli, n.j. A small pestle or club.

Mushtandá, ad. m. Young, of sound health; ad. f. -i. Young (woman).

Mushtu, n.m. The male young of a mouse; f.-ti.

Muthá or -u, n.m. A handful.

Mwál, n.f. See Moál.

Mwehrá or -u, n.m. The image of a village deity. (Also Mhwerá.)

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Ná, adv. (1) No. -háň. adv. Yes or no. (2) Neither. (3) Nor. As: Tinie háň ná kyeň ní dittí. "He did not say yes or no." Ná se thí tiňdí, ná se thá. "Neither she nor he was there."

Nabár, nbár. (S. Nívára.) n.m. Corn that grows with out cultivation.

Nachhattrí, ad. Fortunate, born at a lucky time.

Nádá -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. Difficult. -lágná. v.i. re. To be unhappy.

Nadí, n.t. (Š.) A river.

Nadr, n.f. (P. nazr, sight.) Sight. -parnu; v.t. re. To see, to appear; v.i. re. To be seen.

Nádu-lágnu, v.i. re. To pine in love, to be unhappy.

Nádu-mánanu, v.i. re. To be displeased.

Nag, n.m. (H.) A jewel fit to be fixed in a ring.

Nág, n.m. (S. Nága, a cobra.) (1) A serpent. (2) The name of a village deity.

Nagál, n.m.; Nagálí, n.f. A kind of thin bamboo used in making baskets, etc.

Nagálí, n.f. (1) A kind of thin bamboo. (2) A basket-maker.

Nágan, n.f. (1) A female snake. (2) The name of a deity.

Nagandé, n.m. pl. The sewings which make a quilt, -dené; v.i. ir. To quilt.

Nagárá, $n.\bar{m}$. A kettledrum. pl. -é. Kettledrums. (P. naq-qárah.)

Nagárchí, n.m. One who beats a kettledrum.

Nagárkháná, n.m. A place where a band plays.

Nagaurí, n.f. A kind of poisonous drug.

Nahánu, nhánu; v.i. re. To bathe. (H. naháná.)

Nahorá, n.m. (H. nihora.) A humble request.

Nahwanu, nhwanu; v.t. re. To cause or allow to bathe.

Nái, náwi, n.m. A barber.

Naí, nau, n./. A river.

Naichá, n.m. (P.) A part of the hubble bubble.

Naita, n.m. A rivulet.

Naité, adv. By way of the river.

Naiti, n.f. (1) A rivulet. (2) adv. By way of the rivulet.

Naj, nauj, n.m. (H. anáj.) Food or grain.

Naján, ad. Ignorant, unwise. (Also nján).

Nair. n.f. (nazr) A present. -dení. v.i. ir. To offer a present.

Ná'k, n.m. (S. Násiká.) The nose.

Nakal, n.f. (P. nagal.) (1) Copy. (2) A pastime.

Nakammá, ad. Good for nothing.

Nakhár, n.m. Soap.

Nakhrá, n.m. (P.) Artifice, waggery. Naktá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. One having no nose.

Nakthró, n.f. Bleeding from the nostrils. -chhutní, v.i. re. To bleed from the nostrils.

Nál, n.m. (1) A pipe. (2) A small river.

Nal, n.m. The joint of the waist.

Nálá, n.m. A waterfall.

Naláek, ad. (P. náláiq.) Ignorant, unwise.

Nal-bái, n.f. A kind of disease. (Fr. nal, sinews, and bái, wind.)

Nali, n.f. The bone of the leg.

Náli, n.f. A small rivulet.

Nálshí, n.f. (P. nálish.) Complaint. -yé, phrase, by way of complaint.

Nálú, n.m. A spring. -we-láná, v.t. re. To put a child to sleep under a small thread of water. It is a custom among the hill people to put children in summer under a water-shoot.

Nalú-músá, n.m. A mungoose.

Namálá, n.m. A request to a village deity. -karna; v.t. ir. To ask a deity about one's troubles, etc. -dená; v.i. ir. decide verbally, by a village deity. (Also nmálá.)

Namawlá or nmáwlá, ad. Motherless.

Nán, náná, n.m. Maternal grandfather. (The former form is used in Basháhr.)

Nanad, n.f. The husband's sister. (S. Nanándá.)

Nancháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to dance; f.-i, pt.-é.

Náňchnu, v.i. re. To dance; f.-í, pl.-é.

Nandoi, n.m. The husband of a husband's sister.

Nángu, -á. ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Naked. Nánh, adv. Negatively. -dení, v.t. ir. To deny, to refuse.

Nání, n.f. Maternal grandmother.

Nánká, n.m. The mother's home.

Nansál, n.m. See Nánká.

Náňw, n.m. (H. nám.) A name.

Náňwkawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to name.

Náňwknu, v.t. re. To name, to enlist.

Náp, n.f. Measurement.

Napáwnu, v.t. re. (1) To cause or allow to measure. (2) To cause or allow to bend.

Napnu, v.i. re. To bend, to be humble; f. i, pl. é.

Nápnu, v.t. re. To measure; f.-í, pl.-é.

Nar, ad. m. (1) Male. (2) Brave.

Nárá, n.m. Trouser string.

Narain, n.m. (S. Náráyana.) The god Vishnu.

Narát, nrát, n.m. Mistletoe, holly.

Narátté, n.m. pl. (S. Navarátri, nine nights.) A term used for the nine days of Chet and Asoj, in which the grand worship of Devi (goddess) is performed.

Nard, n.f. A ball used in chaupar (dicing.)

Naréltu, n.m. A small pipe for smoking: dim: of narel.

Nargas, n.m. A kind of water lilv.

Nárí, n.f. (S.) The wrist or pulse. Nárí dá rau. "Be conscious." Tesrí nárí chhutígoí, "He has no pulse," i.e., he is dead.

Narí, n.f. A kind of red leather made of goat's skin.

Narí, n.f. A Pipe for smoking.

Nárjá, n.m. A kind of scales peculiar to the hill people.

Nark, n.m. (S. Naraka, hell.) (1) Hell. (2) Ordure.

Narméň, n.f. Cotton.

Nárné, n.m. By God.

Naról, nról, n.m. Veil, the pardá system.

Naróliyá, nroliyá, ad. One who wears a veil, one who lives in pardá.

Nar-rá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Hard.

Narth, n.m. (S. Anartha, nonsensical.) Violence, oppression. -honá; v.i. ir. To be unusual.

Nás, naswár, n.f. and m. Snuff. -lani, v.i. ir. To take snuff.

Ná's, n.m. A beam of timber.

Nasáf, nsáf, n.m. (P. insáf, justice.) Justice.

Nash, naush, n.m. pl. (S. Nakha.) The nails.

Násh, n.m. (S. Násha.) Destruction, ruin.

Nasháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to escape: /.-i, pl.-é.

Nashnu, v.i. re. To go away. (Basháhr.) Násh-patnu, v.t. re. To ruin, to destroy.

Nasht, n.m. (S. Nashta.) Destruction.

Nasúr, nsúr, n.m. (H. násúr.) A fistula, ulcer or sore.

Nátá, n.m. Relation.

Nátáchárí, n.f. (H. nátáchárí.) Relationship.

Náth, n.f. (H. nath.) Nose ring. Syn. Bálu.

Natháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to escape; f.-i, pl.-é.

Nathnu, v.i. re. To run away, to escape. Generally used when a ruler's subject goes to another territory.

Naú, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. New.

Nau, ad. (1) Nine. (2) a River.

Nauhtá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Of nine hands, in measure.

Nauj, n.m. See Naj.

Naumí, n.f. The ninth day of Chét and Asój on which general worship of Devi (goddess) is performed. It is considered a feast day.

Naun, n.m. A place for water.

Nauni, n.f. See Chopar.

Naur, n.f. (H. nahar.) A canal or channel.

Naush, n.m. pl. See Nash.

Nautór, n.m. Newly cultivated land.

Nawá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. New. (Also nawu.)

Nawi, ad. f. See Nawa.

Náwí, n.m. See Náí.

Náyan, n.f. A barber's wife. (Also nain.)

Nbár, n.m. (S. Nívára.) Rice or other grain growing wild or uncultivated.

Nberá, n.m. Destruction. -honá, v.i. ir. To be ruined. Nchháná, -u. ad.m. -f. -í, pl. -é. Unsifted.

Nchhániéň, adv. Without sifting.

Nefá, n.m. The upper part of the trousers in which the string is fastened.

Negan, n. f. The wife of a Negí.

Negi, n.m. The commandant of a kothi in Kullu and Mandi. An officer in charge of a jail in the Simla Hills. In Kanáwar, a gentleman or well-to-do man.

Nehá, n.m. The spring harvest.

Néhchá, n.m. See Níhchá.

Nehtu, n.m. (S. Neha.) Love.

Nejá, n.m. A spear.

Neorá, n.m. Cooked flesh.

Neré, ad. Near. (Also níuré.)

Nernu, nhernu, n.m. A small implement used to cut the nails.

Neshne-láná, v.t. re. To ask, to inquire.

Neshnu, v.t. re. To ask.

Newul, n.m. A hot place. (Also Néol.)

Nhánu, v.i. re. See Nahánu. Nhernu, n.m. See Nernu.

Nhoknu, v.t. re. To hit, to strike; f. -1, pl. é.

Nhránu, v.i. re. To humble.

Nhráwnu, v..t. re. To cause or allow to humble.

Nhwair, n.j. A healthy complexion. -girní, v.i. re. To be convalescent.

Nhwárí, n.t. Breakfast.

Nhyairkh, n.m. (S. Andha-paksha.) A dark fortnight.

Nhyálnu, v.t. re. To wait for; f.-í, pl.-é.

Ní, adv. Not. As: Máň ní chaňyíň. 'I don't want.'

Ní-ánthi, phrase. Isn't.

Ní-balnu, v. Cannot.

Ních. n.m. (S. Nícha.) A low-caste man.

Ní-chanyin, phrase. I don't want.

Nichhá or -u, ad. m.; f. i, pl. -é. Clean, fine.

Nichhu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Neat, unpolluted. Háchháad. m. Pure, clean, purified physically or morally.

Nigrí-jánu, v.i. ir. To perish; f.-í, pl.-é.

Nigrnu, v.i. re. To die, to perish; f.-i, pl.-é.

Nihán, n.m. A carpenter's tool.

Nihálnu, v.t. re. See Nhyálnu.

Níhchá, n.m. (S. Nishchaya.) Patience, belief. -rákhná; v.i. re. To have patience. -rauná, v.i. ir. To be assured.

Níhchá, n.m. Leisure. (Also néhchá.) -honá, v.i. ir. To be at leisure.

Níj, n.f. (S. Nidrá.) Sleep. -áwni, v.i. re. To be asleep.

Nil, n.m. The inner part of the blue or other pine.

Ním, n.m. An oath, an ordeal. -karná or -thwáná, v.i. ir. and re. To take an oath. -dená, v.t. ir. To offer an oath. Ním or nimb, n.m. (S. Nimba.) A kind of tree. (Melia

azadiracta).

Nimbú, n.m. (S. Nimba.) The citron fruit or tree.

Nimlu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. (S. Nirmala.) Clear. Proverb. Gáhlu gáhlu bahi já, nimlu nimlu rahi jâ. "During the monsoon, foul or turbid water flows away, but the clear or transparent remains," i.e., bad times will pass away and happy days return.

Niňdnu, v.t. re. To weed.

Ninrá, n.m. The tree-frog.

Nír, n.m. (S. Níra, water.) Tears.

Nirná, n.m. Breakfast. (Keonthal.) ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Not having taken food. Nirne peté khírá ní kháná. "Don't eat cucumber when fasting."

Nisrnu, v.i. re. To come into ear, of grain.

Nithé, adv. Down. -pándi, ad. Cohabiting. -khe. For bedding.

Nitrnu, v.i. re. To dry by letting water run or drip off.

Níuré, ad. Near, nigh.

Nmáná, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Anxious, full of care.

Nmáné-shetnu, v.t. re. To cast into anxiety; f.-í, pl.-é.

Nofá, n.m. (P. nafá.) Interest, gain. -honá, v.i. ir. To have an interest in.

Nók, n.f. A tip. -é. With a tip.

Nokhu or -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -ē. Extraordinary, wonderful.

Nrágul, n.f. (Fr. nál, a ravine, and bágur, the air.) The air that blows from a ravine.

Nráj, ad. (P. náráz.) Displeased, angry. -honu, v.i. ir. To be displeased or angry.

Nrájí, n.f. Displeasure, anger. -honi or -karni. To proceed against.

Nrát, n.m. See Narát. Syn. bándá or bánde.

Nrogá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Convalescent. (Fr. S. Níroga.)

Nryórnu, v.t. re. To overtake; f.-í, pl.-é.

Nryórwnu, v.i. re. To be overtaken; f.-i, pl.-é.

Nwál, n.f. The thread used in making a palang.

Nwálá, n.m. A morsel. -laná, v.i. ir. To take a morsel.

Nwán, n.m. Measurement. -laná, v.i. ir. To take a measurement.

Nyáw, n.m. (S. Nyaya.) Justice.

Nyáw-nasáf, n.m. Redress for a crime.

Nyó, n.m. See Nyáw.

Nyondá, n.m. (S. Nimantrana). Invitation. -dená. v.i. ir. To invita.

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O, int. The sign of the vocative case. As: O re lá. "O you." Obrá, n.m. A cattle-shed; the hill people generally keep their cattle in the lower storey, hence this word is always applied to the lower storey where the cattle are kept. -kárhná, v.i. re. To carry out manure from the cattle-shed.

Obrí, n.t. A small cattle-shed.

Obrtu, n.m. A smaller cattle-shed.

Od, n.f. Moisture, dampness.

Odá, -u, ad.m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Damp, wet, moist.

Odá, n m. (1) A basket. (2) A boundary stone in a field.

Odá, n.m. The tooth between the front teeth and the grinders. Odá báňdá, n.m. Partition. -honá, v.i. ir. To be separated off with one's own share in one's father's property.

Odkan, n.m. The frame of wood on which a carpenter works.

Oduwá, n.m. The lower corner of a field.

Oduwé, adv. At the corner.

O'g, n.m. The wedge of a plough.

Oglá, n.m. A kind of grain grown in the hills; called kotú in the plains.

Oh, ohú; int. Ah, alas!

O'j, n.m. Excuse, pretence. -láná, v.i re To pretend.

Ojr, n.m. The stomach.

Ojrú, n.m. pl. Curls.

Okhal, ukhal, n.m. A mortar.

O'l, n.m. Land-slip. -parná, v.i. re. To slip.

Oļá, n.m. pl.-é. Hail.

Olan, n.m. Soup or cooked pulse or other vegetables with which to take bread or rice.

Olé, n.m. pl. (H.) Hail. -parné, v.i. re. To have a shower of hail. Syn. sharú.

Ólé, adv. On the other side.

Oliyá, n.m. A piece of twine used to hold up a pot, etc. with.
-láná, v.i. re. To tie twine to a pot, etc., -banáwná, v.i.
re. To make twine for an earthen pot, etc.

Oprá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Unacquainted, unknown, a foreigner. Opré-rá láj, n.m. The treatment or cure of magical attacks.

(ir, n.m. A carpenter. (Basháhr.) In the Simla Hills he is called Bádhí.

Orá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Here, at this place, hither.

O'ré, adv. For pleasure.

O-re-lá, phrase. O you!

Orháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to wear (as a quilt).

Orhni, n.f. A woman's scarf.

Orhnu, v.t. re. To wear, to put on; f. -i, pl. -é.

Orká, u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. To this side.

Orní, n.f. The wife of a carpenter. Syn. bádhan. Or-rá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Near, nigh, this side.

O's, n./. Dew. -parni, v.i. re. To fall, of dew.

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Pách, n.m. (S. Patra.) A leaf. -nu, v.t. re. To shave with an adz.

Páchar, n.m.; n.f. Backbiting, injuring one's interests.

Pachar, n.f. (H. pachchar.) A wedge.

Pacháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to digest; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pachernu, v.t. re. To smash against; f. -i, pl. -é.

Páchh, $n_i m$. A cut in a limb or body. -den á, v.i. ir. To inflict a cut on a limb.

Páchhé or -á, adv.; f. -í, pl. -é. Backwards.

Páchhé-fa, adv. Afterwards.

Pachhet, -i, n.m. and f. Late in ripening, of the harvest.

Páchhí, adv. By the back way.

Páchhká, adv. Behind, backwards; u.m., f. -í, pl. -é.

Páchhlá, -u, àd. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Former, previous, of late.

Páchhu-fírí-ro, c.p. Having turned back.

Pachí, ad. Twenty-five.

Pachí-ro-raunu, v.i. ir. To try with utmost care.

Pachká, n.m. A hold, a grasp. -páná, v.i. re. To have a hold of. -dená, v.t. ir. To lay hands on.

Pachņu, v.t. re. To be digested; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pachnu, v.i. re. To be engaged attentively.

Páchņu, v.t. re. To work with an adze.

Pad, n.m. One only. In calculation when only one remains it is called pad and is esteemed very lucky.

Pádá, n.m. The buttocks.

Pádhá, n.m. A learned Bráhman who discharges religious duties. -ni, n./. The wife of a Pádhá.

Páeláge, n.m. A term used for saluting a Bráhman by the three curtes, viz., Rájpút, Baniyá and Kanet. And among Kanets the saluting term is páoponde or pairí-pé. Lit.: 'I bow down to your feet.'

Páetá, n.m. (S. Prasthána.) Preparations for a journey. Páetlá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Polluted, unclean, left off.

Pág, n.j. A turban. (H. pagri.)

Págié, págiyé, n.m. pl. Those who wear turbans.

Pagiyá, n.m. Verandah.

Pagrá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Perceptible, present. -é-honu, v.i. ir. To be present or perceptible. -karná, v.t. ir.

To make present or perceptible. -é-bolnu, v.t. re. To declare, to admit of no other evidence than actual presence. (Fr. S. Pratyaksha, presence.) -é-japnu, v.t. re. To speak openly.

Pagri, n.f. A turban. -band, n.m. A chief's official.

Pahi, n.f. Spleen

Paiňdá, n.m. pl. -é. A road or way.

Painde-de-lanu, v.t. re. To lead on the right path; f. -i, pl. -e. Painhat, ad. 65. -wan, m. -win, f. -wen, pl. Sixthy-fifth.

Pain-né, n.m. pl. Steps.

Paintáli, ad. 45. -wáň, m. -wiň, -/. -weň, pl. Forty-fifth. Paintí, ad. 35. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. -weň, pl. Thirty-fifth.

Pair, n.m. pl. Feet.

Painu, -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Sharp.

Pairí-pé, n.m. See Páeláge.

Paitan, n.m. A term for a tax at one rupee per year. (Kullú). Pájá, n.m. A kind of hill cherry.

Pajáh, ad. 50. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. -weň, pl. Fiftieth.

Pajalnu, v.i re. To burn, to kindle; f.-i, pl.-é.

Pajámá, n.m. (H. pzijámá.) Trousers. (Also páijamá.)

Pajattar, ad. 75. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. -weň, pl. Seventy-fifth.

Pajnu, v.i. re. To grow; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pakaish, n.f. Firmness, durability. -karní, v.i. ir. To strengthen.

Pakáwnu, v.t. re. (H. pakáná.) To cook, to boil; f. -í, pl. -é. Pakh, n.m. (S. Paksha, the dark or bright fortnight.) A fortnight.

Pákhá, n.m. (H. paňkhá.) A fan. -báná, v.i. re. To fan.

Pakhérú, n.m. pl. Birds in general.

Pákhí, n.f. A kind of large white woollen blanket.

Pákhlá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. A stranger, a foreigner. Pákkh, n.m. (S Pankha.) A feather, a wing. (Also páňkkh.)

Páknu, v.i. re. To be cooked, to ripen; f.-i, pl.-é.

Pakráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to arrest or hold; f.-i, pl.-é.

Pákrnu, v.t. re. (H. pakarná.) To hold or arrest; f.-i, pl.-é.

Pakyén, n.m. pl. (H. pakwán.) Rich cakes, etc. Pálá, n.m. (H. palla.) Corner of a scarf.

Pálá, n.m. Frost. -parná, v.i. re. To be frosty.

Palá, n.m. pl.-é. A measure of clarified butter equal to about 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ chittáks.

Pálá, n.m. See Anchal.

Paláh, n.m. Waved leaf of the fig-tree (Ficus infectoria.) The sacred fig.

Palái, n.f. Wages for keeping cattle.

Paláwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to cherish; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pálhá, n.m. A grain measure equal to one ser and 3 chitaks, Indian measure.

Páli, n.f. A turn. (H. bárí.)

Pali, n.f. A small vessel of iron for pouring out oil.

Pálnu, v.t. re. (H. pálná.) To cherish, to support; f.-í, pl.-é. Pálsar, pálsará, n.m. An official in charge of a granary or fortress. (Suket, Kullu and Kumársain.)

Páltru, n.m. One whose turn it is to work or guard.

Pálú, n.m. pl. A kind of hill apple.

Palu, n.m. pl. The grey hairs of old age. -lágné, v.i. re. To become old.

Pá'n, n.f. Sharpening. -deni, v.i. ir. To sharpen.

Pánch, n.m. pl. Arbitrators.

Pánchí, n.f. Arbitration. -karni, v.i. ir. To arbitrate.

Pánchhí, n.m. pl. Birds in general. (Also pakhérú.)

Páňchmí, n.f. (S. Panchamí.) The fifth day of the bright or dark half of a month.

Páňdá, n.m. A Bráhman who receives a donation at an eclipse.

Páňdá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Across.

Pándá, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Upon, up. Proverb:—Ju nhánde muchau, munhon pándé japau juth, tesru ká pákri? "How can he, who makes water in his bath, or tells a lie, face to face, be caught." Meaning, how can he be punished?

Pándé, prep. Above, upon.

Páňdká or - u, ad. m.; f. - i, pl. - e. Across there.

Páňdlá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Of above, upper.

Páňdlá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Of across, trans-river or ridge.

Pandrá-hazár, n.m. A term for the Keonthal State, as its net revenue at one time was only Rs. 15,000.

Pandró, ad. 15. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. weň, pl. Fifteenth.

Pandrú, n.m. A festival observed on the 15th of the month of Poh. (Jubbal, Kotgarh and Kotkhai).

Pá'ng, n.f. Mud of the foul water kept in a field for sowing rice during the rainy season.

Pángá, n.m. (H. panga.) A branch, a bough.

Panhair, n.m. The water-place of a village.

Panhyairí, n.t. A rainbow. -parni, v.i. re. To appear, of the rainbow.

Panhyairú, n.m. See Panhyair.

Páni, n./. A shoe or shoes.

Panihár, n.m. See Panhyair.

Pánj, ad. (H. piňch.) 5. -wáň, f. -wiň, m. weň, pl. The fifth. Páňjag, n.m. pl. (S. Panchaka.) The nakshatras called Dhanishthá, Shatbhikhá, Púrvábhádrapadá, Uttarábhádrapadá and Revatí.

Panjá-jins, n.m. The right of the State to buy up grain at harvest at fixed rates. (Kuthár.)

vest at fixed rates. (Kuthár.)
Panjaulí, n.m. One who collected supplies, milk, curds, wood, etc., for the royal kitchen. (Kullu.)

Paňjíri, n.f. A medicinal cake given to a woman who has been delivered of a child.

Páňkh, n.m. pl. See Pákkh.

Paňkhrí, n.f. An army, especially infantry.

Páňkhru, n.m. See Páňchhí.

Panmésur, n.m. (S. Paramésvara.) God. (Also parmésur.)

Panth, n.m. (S. Pathin, a road.) A heap of stones kept at a cross-road and considered the deity of the way. Everyone passing by has to put a stone on it.

Pántú, n.m. pl. Children's shoes.

Pánu, v.t. re. To throw in.

Páňw, n m. Foot.

[úrna).

Páňwná, n.m.; f. í, pl. -é. Aguest. Also páňuná. (S. Prágh-

Panyaili, n.f. See Panhyairí.

Páp, n.m. (S. Pápa, sin.) (1) Sin. (2) A deceased ancestor, who is supposed to cause injury if not worshipped. -pújná, v.i. re To worship the deceased with cakes, etc.

Pápi, ad. (S. Pápin.) Sinful.

Pár. adv. Across.

Parainá, n m. (S. Parinayana.) A form of marriage observed among Kanets. (See Ruti-manái.)

Paraintú, n.m. A nuptial ceremony observed on a smaller scale than a parainâ.

Parál, n.m. (S. Palála). Rice-straw. (Also prá'l.)

Paráli-lané, v.t. ir. pl. To beseech, to implore. Tineň deo parálné láé." They began to beseech the village deities; f.-i, -a, sing.

Parálnu, v.t. re. To beseech, to implore; f.-1, pl.-é. Parár, prár, adv. The year before last.

Parát, prát, n.m. A large dish. (H.)

Paréwi, n.f. (S. Pratipadá.) The first day of the bright or dark half of a month.

Pári, adv. Beyond.

Parí-go-á-lá, v. Would have fallen. Paríti, n.f. (S. Príti, love.) (1) Friendship, love. (2) The state of being in good terms.

Pari. n.t. The name of a tune or rágni.

Parj, n.f. A bow string. -chutni, v.i. re. To break the string of a bow. -láni, v.i. re. To put a string to a bow.

Parjá, n.f. Subjects.

Parmán, n.m. (S. Pramána, a proof.) Acceptable.

Parmésur, n.m. See Panmésur.

Paró, n.m. Grain lent on interest.

Partishtá, n.f. (S. Pratishthá, consecration.) A ceremony observed on entering a new house or temple.

Partishtnu, v.t. re. To consecrate; f.-i, pl.-é.

Páru, n.m. An earthen pot.

Páshá, n.m. A die.

Pashalnu, v. i. re. To speak in a dream.

Pashé. adv. Aside. -lágni, v.i. re. (1) To be unsuccessful. (2) To miss.

Páshí, n.f. (1) Hanging. (2) In any calculation if two remain as the balance it is considered unlucky, and this balance is called Páshí.

Pashkri, n.f. The sides, of the human body.

Pashņu, v.t. re. (H. parosná.) To serve a meal, to place food before guests.

Pashú, n.m. pl. (S. Pashu, an animal.) Cattle.

Páslí, n.f. (H. paslí.) Ribs.

Pasm, n.f. Tibetan goat's wool: of two kinds, white, and khudrang or natural colour.

Pasmíná, n.m. A shawl, white or of natural colour.

Pá't, n.m. (S. Páta.) Silk.

Patáná or ptáná, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Barefoot.

Patandá, ptándá, n.m. pl.-é. A kind of bread made of wheat flour and eaten with clarified butter and sugar. Especially prepared on some feast day.

Patáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to root up; f.-i, pl.-é.

Patenu, v.t. re. To conciliate.

Patewnu, v.i. re. To be conciliated; f.-1, pl.-é.

Páthá, n.m. A grain measure varying from 2 to 3 sers.

Pathiárú, n.f. A receiver, equivalent to tahwildár. (Fr. Páthá). Páti, páchi, n.f. (H. patti.) A leaf.

Pátí, n.f. A small board, to write on.

Patiánu, v.i, re. To be conciliated; f.-i, pl.-é.

Patiáwnu, v.i. re. To cause or allow to conciliate; f. -í, pl. -é.

Patijnu, v.i. re. To be assured; f.-1, pl.-é.

Patikņu, ptikņu, v.i. re. To jump, to crack.

Pair, n.m. pl. A kind of food made of the leaves of an esculent root.

Pátle-firnu, v.i. re. To be thin or weak; f.-í, pl.-é.

Patnu, v.t. re. To root up; f.-i, pl.-é.

Pátthá, ad. m. Young (man).

Pátthí, ad. f. Young (woman).

Pátu, n.m. A white blanket. -bun-ná, v.i. re. To weave a blanket.

Pátú, n.m. A messenger, one who carries a letter.

Pátuwá, n.m. A messenger.

Patyánu, v.i. re. See Patiánu.

Patyárí, n.j. A small basket to put ornaments in. (Also called suhág patyárí.)

Patyáwnu, v.t. re. See Patiáwnu.

Pau, n.m. (S. Prapá.) A place where water is distributed. -láná, v.i. re. To establish a water supply.

Pauhar, póhar. n.m. pl. (S. Prahara.) Time, career, period, adv. -e. In the time.

Paul, paulí, n./. A ruler's gateway.

Paun, n.f. (S. Pavana, the air.) Wind storm. -lágni, v.i. re.
To blow, of wind. Or to be affected by a wind.

Pau'r, n.f. Likeness. ad., Like. Mere tau tesri paur a'. "My case is like his."

Páw, n.m. (H.) One fourth.

Pohánwé, ad. 95. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. -weň, pl. Ninety-fifth.

Pchásí, ad. 85. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. -weň, pl. Eighty-fifth.

Pcháwnu, v.t. re. See Pacháwnu.

Pchhetá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Late-sown.

Pchhundká, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-ć. The last.

Pchrúwanu, v.i. re. To be torn with nails.

Pchrúwnu, v.t. re. To tear with claws (of a beast.) Brágai tesru múňh pchrúwi páu thu. "The leopard had torn his own face with his nails."

Pchunjá, ad. 55. -wán, m. -win, f. wen, pl. Fifty-fifth.

Pecháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to ruin.

Pechhí, n.f., A large kind of basket to keep grain in.

Pechhtu, n.m. A small basket for keeping grain.

Pechnu, v.t. re. To ruin, destroy; f. -i, pl. -é.

Péoká, pyóká, n.m. A wife's paternal home.

Pé'r, n.m. A tree in general.

Pe't, n.m. (H.) Stomach, belly.

Petkú, n.m. Any esculent root, such as the potato.

Phim, n.m. See Fim.

Phiní, n.f. Ankle.

Phinphri, n./. Butterfly.

Pich, n.m. Juice of rice, water of boiled rice.

Píchh, n.m. See Pích.

Pighlawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to melt; f. -1, pl. -6.

Pighlnu, v.i. re. To melt; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pilawnu, v. t. re. To cause or allow to squeeze; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pilnu, v.l. re. To squeeze, to wring, to exact; f.-i.

Piné, n.f. A kind of wild plant, bearing yellow flowers.

Ping, n.f. Swinging.

Pingáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to swing; f. -í, pl. -é.

Pingnu, v.i. re. To swing.

Pínhnu, v.t. re. To grind, to make into flour; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pini, n.f. An egg; pl.-i.

Pinjra, n.m. A cage for a bird.

Píňjrá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Yellow, pale.

Pinlí, n.f. A fragrant drug used as a medicine.

Pintá, n.m. A stone for grinding anything. (Battá in Hindí.) Piplí, n.f. Chilli.

Piplu, n.m. A kind of grass, resembling the chilli, whence its name.

Piroňdá, n.m. A silk cord used to bind a woman's hair. (Also prándá.)

Pir, $\hat{n}.m$. Pain, an ache. pl.-0.

Pirprú, -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Bitter to the taste.

Pirthí, n.f. (S. Prithiví.) The earth, the world, creation.

Pisháí, n.f. Wages for grinding.

Pisháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to grind; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pisí-ghálnu, v.t. re. To grind down; f. -í, pl. -é.

Pishné-denu, v.t. ir. To allow to grind; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pishu, n.m. (H.) Fleas. (Alike in the singular and plural.)

Pissan, n.m. That which is to be ground.

Pité, ad. Near, nigh.

Pith, pithi, n.f. (S. Prishtha.) The back.

Pithá, -u, n.m. Flour.

Pithi-dé, adv. On the back.

Pitl, n.m. (S. Pittala.) Brass. Píuňlu, a, ad. m. jst. -í, pl. -é. Broad, wide. (Also pyúňlu.)

Piá, ad. See Pajáh.

Pihattar, ad. 75. -wan, m. -win, f. -wen, pl. Seventyfifth.

Pjhúriyá, n.m. The nightingale, of two colours—black and yellow.

Pjláwnu, v.t. re. To burn or to cause or allow to burn; f.-i, pl. -é.

Pkaish, n.f. See Pakaish.

Pláh, n.m. The sacred fig-tree (Ficus religiosa). (S. Plaksha.) Also paláh.

Plássh, n.m. A kind of pheasant.

Plewnu, v.t. re. To sharpen; f. -i, pl. -é.

Póhar, n.m. See Pauhar.

Pokáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to eat; f. -í, pl. -é.

Poknu, v.t. re. To eat; f. -i, pl. -é.

Polá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Hollow.

Pó'r, adv. Last year.

Porá, adv. Away.

Poré-bhájnu, v.i. re. To cease, to stop; f.-i, pl.-é.

Poré-múweň-tusé, phrase. Be off you, get out.

Porí, adv. By that way.

Póriyá, adv. At that place, there.

Pórká, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Of last year; adv. To that

Porlá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -i. The other one.

Por-rá, u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Thither, that side.

Porshu, adv. (1) The day before yesterday. (2) The day after to-morrow.

Poshu, adv. Yesterday, or the day after to-morrow.

Pothar, n.m. The male organ.

Pothí, n.f. (1) A book. (2) A manuscript.

Pothnu, v.i. re. To spoil; f. -i, pl. -é.

Prádhi, ad. (S. Aparádhin.) Cruel, criminal.

Praich, n.m. Grain offered to a deity. -dená, v.i. ir. To give grain to a village deity. By custom the grain of each harvest is first offered to a deity.

Prainá, n.m. See Parainá.

Praintu, n.m. See Paraintu.

Prá'], n.m. See Pará!.

Prá'n, n.m. pl. (S. Prána, the life.) Life, existence. -chorné; v.i. re. To work hard. -udné; v.i. re. To die, to breathe one's last. -dewné, v.i. re. To die. -ní-rauné, v.i. ir. To become weak, to lose strength, to grow old.

Práná, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Old, second-hand. (H.

puráná.)

Prándá, n.m. A coloured thread to bind the braided hair of a maid. Also piroňdá.

Práoná, n.m. See Práwná.

Práoni, práwni, n.f. Hurry, haste. -láni, v. i. re. To make haste.

Práoňthá, n.m. Bread cooked with butter or ahí.

Prá'r, adv. The year before last.

Prát, n.f. See Parát.

Práthi, adv. From the beginning.

Práthti, n.f. A line of men engaged in weeding a field.

Prau, n.m. See Pau.

Praul, paul, n.m. The gateway of a ruler or chief.

Prauli, pauli, n.f. See Praul.

Práwná, n.m.; f. -í. pl. -é. (S. Prághúrna.) A guest.

Práwní, n.f. Haste, hurry. -láni, v.t. re. To hasten. -lágni, v.i. re. To be hurried.

Práyá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. (H. paráyá.) Others.

Prét, n.m. (S. Preta.) A ghost, a goblin.

Prithi, n.f. See Pirthi.

Pri-un-ni, n.f. A sieve. Proverb: Priunni du pani ni raundu. "Water cannot be held in a sieve."

Próht, n.m. (S. Purohita.) A priest.

Pronu, v.t. re. To thread, to string; f.-i, pl.-é.

Psáí, n.f. See Pisháí.

Pshák, n.f. (H. Poshák.) Clothes.

Psháurí, n.m. A loose shirt like that worn by the Pesháwar people.

Ptálí, ad. See Patálí.

Ptáná, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Bare-footed.

Ptáňdá, n.m. See Patáňdá.

Ptaráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to abuse; f. -i, pl. -é.

Ptári-lanu, v.t. ir. To get abused; f.-í, pl.-é.

Ptárnu, v.t. re. To abuse, to disgrace; f. -í, pl. -é.

Púchh, n.f. Asking.

Puchháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to ask; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pucch-de-lágnu, v.t. re. To begin to ask; f. -í, pl. -é.

Puchhí-dénu, v.t. ir. To allow to ask; f. -í, pl. -é.

Puchhné-déná, v.t. ir. To (let) him ask; f. -i, pl. -é.

Puchhné-láná, v t. re. To inquire; f. -í, pl. -é.

Púchh-páchh, n.f. Investigation, an enquiry.

Pugawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to suffice; f. -i, pl. -e.

Pugṇu, v.i. re. To suffice, to be sufficient; f. -1, pl. -é.

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Pujáwnu, v.t. re. (1) To cause or allow to arrive, to escort. (2) To cause or allow to worship; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pujhúriyá, n.m. See Pjhúriyá.

Puinu, v.t. and i. re. (1) To arrive. (2) To worship; f. -i, pl. -é. Púl, n.m. (H. pul.) A bridge.

Pulá, n.m. A bundle of grass. (Also pultu or -tá.)

Pulé, n.m. pl. A kind of jute shoes made in Kullú and Suket.

Púli, n.f. A small bundle of grass, or fuel. (Also pulti.)

Pultâ, see pula.

Pulti, n.f. See Púli.

Pultú, n.m. See Púli. Pun, n.m. (S. Punya.) Goodness, charity, a donation. v. t. ir. To give alms. -karná, v. t. ir. To perform a charitable duty.

Puni, n.f. Rolls of cotton prepared for spinning.

Punjar, punjari, n.m. and f. (S. Puchchha.) A tail.

Puňjáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to wipe; f. -í, pl. -é.

Puňjnu, v.t. re. To wipe; f. -í, pl. -é.

Puňjtá, puňjtí, n.m. and f. A small tail.

Punyá, n.f. (S. Púrnamásí.) The full moon. (Also púnó.)

Púr púrá, ad. Complete; f. -í, pl. -é.

Puráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to complete; f. -1, pl. -é.

Púrbáng, n.m. (S. Púrvánga.) The preliminary ritual at a wedding or the sacred thread ceremony.

Púrbo-khe. adv. To the eastward.

Púré, n.m. pl. Puddings.

Púre, ad. m. pl. Complete.

Púrí, n.f. (H.) A kind of bread cooked in clarified butter.

Purnu, v.t. re. To make up; f. -1, pl. -é.

Puthá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Reversed, turned back.

Puth-káŭdá, n.m. A plant (Achyranthes aspera).

Pwájá, n.m. The outturn of a harvest.

Pwáo, pwáw, n.m. (S. Upáyá.) Treatment, remedy. -karná, v.t. ir. To remedy. frecover.

Pwáré-déwnu, v.i. re. To be senseless for a day and then Pyahair, n.m. Green grass for cattle.

Pyaij, n.m. (H. pyáj.) Onion.

Pyár, n.m. (H.) Love.

Pyáss, n.f. (H. piás.) Thirst.

Pyáwí, n.f. A nurse.

Pyáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to suck; f. -i, pl. -é.

Pyoká, n.m. See Peoká.

Pyúňlá, ad. m.; t. -í. pl. -é. Yellow, pale.

Pyúňtrú, n.m. A small bird, of yellow colour.

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Rá, -u poss: affix; f. -í, pl. -ré. Of. As: Terá, Your. Tesrú. His. Teso-rí, Her. Tinó-re, Of them.

Ráchchh, n.m. A handloom.

Rachchhyá, n.f. (S. Rakshá, protection.) Protection. -karni, v.t. ir. To protect. -rauni, v.i. ir. To be protected.

Ráesí, rársí, n.f. The state.

Ragárá, rgárá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Sunny. Yárá yé a bari rgârì jágá. "Friend, this is a very sunny place."

Rahi-goi-a-hado-máso-ri mútho. Cohrase: You have become very weak.

Rai, n.m. The fir tree. (Also rau.) Rai, n.f. Mustard. -ri-daļi, n.f. The mustard plant. -rádáná, n.m. Mustard seed.

Ra-í-jánu, v.t. ir. To remain. Sé ra-í-guwá tethiyá. He remained there.

Rain, n.f. A term for a wife who has been brought in marriage.

Rajáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to content; f. -i, pl. -é.

Rajnu, v.i. re. To content, to be satisfied, f.-i, pl.-é.

Rajyównu, v.t. rege To cause or allow to content or satisfy; f. -i, pl. -é.

Rákas, n.m. (S. Rákshasa.) A demon, a goblin. -an, n.f. A female demon.

Rakhauri, n.f. (H. rákhrí.) A silken of cotton thread to be tied on the wrist at the full moon in Sawan.

Rakháwnu, v t. re. To gause or allow to put or place; f. -i, pl.

Rákhnu, v.t. re. To put, to place, to keep; f. -i, pl. -é.

Raláwnu, rláwnu, v.t. re. (H. raláná.) To mix together; f. -í, pl. -é.

Ralé-rizkai, adv. By chance.

Ráli, ad. Red, crimson.

Ralí-jánu, v.i. ir. To be mixed together; f.-í. pl.-é.

Ralnu, v.i. re. To be mixed together; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rálnu, v.t. re. To mix together; t.-i, pl.-é.

Raluwá, ad. Mixed.

Rámchangí, n./. A term for a kind of long Indian gun.

Rámramai, n.f. Salutation, greeting.

Rá'n, n.f. The thigh.

Ranáik, n.m. pl. The officials of a Ráná (chief.) [widow. Ránd, n.f. pl.-o. A widow. -honí, v.i. ir. To become a

Rángan, rwángan, n.m. pl. A kind of pulse.

Rann, ad. m. Barren, uncultivated. Tesrá khéch rann raiguwá. "His field remained uncultivated." (Also ran.)

Ráolá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Belonging to a chief.

Ráot, n.m. A term for a Rájpút.

Rapatt, adv. Entirely. (Also rpatt.)

Rá'r, n.m. Roasting anything in clarified butter. -nu or -denu, v.t. re. To roast in butter.

Rár, n.f. Struggle, strife. -honi, v.i. ir. To struggle. -karni, v.i. ir. To strive, to struggle.

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Raráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to roast in butter; f.-i, pl.
-é.

Rárnu, v.t. re. To roast in butter; f.-í, pl.-é.

Rarnu, v.i. re. To be displeased, to be angry. Sé guwá máň-fa rarí. "He is displeased with me."

Rársí, n.f. A state. (Also ráesí).

Ras, n.m. (S. Rasa.) Juice.

Rasáwnu, v.t. re. To praise, to speak in favour of; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rasáwnu, v.i. re. To be praised, to boast; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rasó, rsó, n.f. (H. rasoi.) Cook-room, victuals, food. .banáwní; v.i. re. To cook. -honi, v.i. ir. To be cooking. -laní, v.i. ir. To take food.

Rasti, n.f. Twine.

Rát, rách, n.f. (S. Rátri.) Night.

Rátá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Red, crimson. (S. Rakta.)

Rath, n.m. (S. Ratha, a chariot.) A peculiar kind of doli in which a village deity is made to dance.

Ráthí, n.m. A term for a lower class Rájpút (Kángrá and Simla Hills).

Ráthu, n.m. The name of a sept of Kanets.

Rathyólí, n.m. A tune used when the village deity dances in a rath.

Ráti, n.f. A piece of iron.

Rátrá, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. (1) Reddish. (2) A species of rice.

Rau, con. And. Proverb: Chhéwrí rau máú sukhai ní rauňdé, "Women and bees never live in a good place."

Rau, n.m. See Rai.

Raub, n.m. An agricultural implement. (Basháhr.)

Raun, n.m. A courtyard before a palace.

Raunu, v.i. ir. To live, to remain; f. -i, pl. -é.

Rbálnu, v.t. re. (1) To look after; f. -1, pl. -6. (2) To beguile.

Rbálwnu, v.i. re. To be looked after; f.-í, pl.-é.

Rblawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to look after; f.-i, pl.-é.

Ré, poss: affix, pl. See Rá.

Reb, n.f. A kind of cut, of trousers.

Rebi-pjámá, n.m. A kind of trousers.

Réhar, n.m. Sweeper.

Reká, -u, pro.; f.-í, pl.-é. The other.

Rékh, n.f, (S. Rekhá.) A line. dení. To draw a line.

Rektai, adv. At another place.

Relá, n.m. A log of timber. Reláwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to push on; f.-í, pl.-é.

Reli or relti, n.f. A small piece of a log.

Relnu, v.t. re. To push on; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rél-pél-máchní, v.i. re. To be crowded.

Ré't, n.m. A saw in general.

Retá, n.m. Sand.

Retáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to saw; f.-i, pl.-é.

Reti, n.f. A small saw.

Retlá or -u. ad. m.; f. -í, pl. .é. Sandy.

Retnu. v.t. re. To saw; f. -1, pl. -6.

Reúns, ryúns, n m. A kind of tree the wood of which is used to make sticks, etc.

Rgánu, v.t. re. (H. raňgáná.) To dye, to colour; f. -í, pl. -é.

Rgárá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. See Ragárá.

Rgáwnu, v.i. re. To be coloured; f. i, pl. -é. Rháchnu, v.t. re. To lose or to be lost; f. -í, pl. -é.

Rhámí, ad. (H. harámí.) Unlawful.

Rháwnu, v.i. re. To be agreed, to consent; f.-i. pl.-é.

Rháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to work; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rhcháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to lose; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rhyaiwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to be agreed; f. -i, pl. -é.

Rhyaiwnu, v.i. re. To be agreed, to arrive at; f.-1, pl.-é.

Rhyáli, n.f. A fair at which the people practise archery, held in the monsoon. (Madhán., Theog, Balsan and Jubbal.) Rí. poss: affix. See Rá.

Richh or rikh, n.m. (S. Riksha.) A bear. (The latter form is used in Basháhr.)

Rigrú, n.m. An attendant, a servant, a peon.

Ríjh, n.f. A pleasant thing. -karní, v.t. ir. To be pleased with.

Rijháwnu, v.t. re. To please; f.-í, pl.-é.

Rijhnu, v.i. re. (1) To be satisfied, to be pleased; f. -i, pl. -é.

(2) v.t. re. To be cooked. Rijhyawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to cook; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rijkó, n.m. (P. rizg.) Livelihood.

Ríkh, n.m. See Ríchh.

Rikhí, n.m. (S. Rishi.) A sage, a saint.

Rín, n m. (S. Rina.) A debt, a loan. denú, v.t. ir. To give a loan. -gráhnu, v.i. re. To realize a debt.

Riráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to slip; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rirkáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to roam; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rirknu, v.i. re. To roam to and fro. ; f.-1, pl.-é.

Rirkú, ad. Rolling.

Rirnu, v.i. re. To stumble, to slip; f.-1, pl.-é.

Rit, n.f. (S. Ritu.) Season.

Rít, n.f. (S. Riti, the way.) A custom, manners. -lani, v.i. ir. To accept the expenses of one's marriage, and abandon one's wife to another. -honi, v.i. ir. To pay off the marriage expenses of one's wife. -bartni, v.i. re. To act according to custom.

Rjhyownu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to cook or boil.

Rivownu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to satisfy; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rkhrunyá, n.f. (Fr. Rakhrí, a thread, and punyá, full moon.) A festival held on the full moon in Sawan at which the twice-born castes don a new sacred thread after consecrating it by Vedic hymns, and a thread (called rakshá, rákhí or rákhrí) is tied by a Bráhman round every one's wrist to protect him for a year. Gifts are made to Bráhmans and rich food is cooked and eaten with friends and relatives.

Róg, n.m. (S. Roga.) Disease. -áwnu, v.i. re. To appear, of a disease. -honu, v.i. ir. To be diseased, to be ill.

Roglá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Sick, ill, having a disease.

Roj, n.m. (P. roz.) Day. -roj. adv. Every day.

Rojí, n.f. Livelihood.

Rók, n.f. (1) Prevention. (2) Cash.

Rokáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to prevent; f.-i, pl.-é. Rokí-denu, v.t. ir. To bar, to prevent, to stand in the way;

/. -í. pl. -é.

Roknu, v.t. re. To bar, to prevent; f.-i, pl.-é.

Ronde-lágnu, v.i. re. To begin to weep; f.-í, pl.-é.

Ronu, runu, v.i. re. To weep, to bewail; f.-i, pl.-é.

Ropá, n.m. Planting (of rice). -i., n.j. The act of planting.

Ropáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to plant (of rice).

Ropnu, v.t. re. To plant (rice).

Rór, n.m. (1) A small stone. (2) A stirring about.

Rorá-dená, v.i. ir. To stir about; f.-í, pl.-é.

Roráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to stir; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rornu, v.t. re. To stir; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rósh, n.m. (S. Rosha.) Anger, indignation. -áwṇa, v.i. re.
To be angry. -e-hoṇu, v.i. ir. To be displeased.

Rosháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to displease; f. -i, -é.

Roshuwnu, v.i. re. To be angry, to be displeased; f.-i. pl.-e. Rót, n.m. A cake for a deity. -praich, n.m. A present of

cooked and uncooked food to a village deity.

Rowú, ad. One who weeps.

Rpatt, adv. Entirely. (Also rapatt.)

Rsáwnu, v.i. re. See Rasáwnu.

Rsó, n./. See Rasó.

Rsótar, n.m. A chief's cook.

Rú, poss: affix m. See Rá.

Rúbákárí, n.f. Pleading. -karni, v.i. ir. To plead. -honi, v.i. ir. To be pleaded.

Rudhņu, v.t. re. (S. Ruddha.) To detain; f.-i, pl.-é.

Ruí, n./. See Rúň.

Ruk, n.m. Side. dekhná, v.i. re. To betray one's intention. paltná, v.i. re. To be against.

Rukáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to prevent; f.-í, pl.-é.

Rúkh, n.m. A tree. (S. Bhúruha.)

Rukhá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. Rough, unproductive. (Also-lukhá.)

Rukháni, n.f. A kind of chisel.

Rukhrá, n.m. A small tree.

[pl. -é.

Rukņu, v.i. re. (H. rukná.) To stop, to be detained; f.-i,

Rulawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to roam; f. -i, pl. -é.

Ruli-jánu, v.i. ir. To be roaming; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rulnu, v.i. re. (1) To roam to and fro. (2) To be left without a guardian.

Rúm, n.m. (1) The act of planting. (2) Hair on the body.

Rumáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to plant; f. -i, pl. -é.

Rumnu, v.t. re. To plant; f.-i, pl.-é.

Rupoivá, n.m. (H. rupayá.) A rupee.

Rúň, n.f. Cotton.

Ruňdá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Weeping, bewailing.

Ruň-de-lágnu, v.i. re. To weep, to bewail; f.-í, pl.-é.

Runu, v.i. re. See Ronu.

Rúpmáňjaní, n.f. A kind of tree which bears bright red flowers in the monsoon.

Rusháwnu, v.t. re. See Rosháwnu.

Rushí-jánu, v.i. ir. To be displeased or angry.

Rushnu, v.i. re. To be angry or displeased; f.-i, pl.-é.

Ruthnu, v.i. re. See Rushnu; f.-i. pl.-é.

Ruti-manái, n.f. A kind of marriage ceremony; 4 or 5 men go from the bridegroom's to the bride's house, dress her, put a cap on her head and bring her home to the bridegroom. (Kángrá.) Rít in the Simlá Hills. (Syn. Prainá.)

Ruwání, ad. f. (1) Pleasant. (2) n.f. Summer.

S

Sabalá or -u, ad. m., f. -í, pl. -é. In favour. -girnu or -firnu, v.i. re. To be favourable; f.-i, pl.-é.

Sabhá, n.f. (S.) An assembly, a court.

Sabháw, n.m. (S. Swabháva, disposition.) Temper, disposition.

Sach, n.m. (S. Satya.) Truth. -á or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. True, truthful.

Sadá, adv. (S.) Always, ever.

Sadká, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Original, constant.

Sáér, sáer sájí, n.f. The first day of the month of Asoj.

Sahattar, ad. 70. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. -weň, pl. Seventieth.

Saí, ad. Right. -láni, v.t. re. To trace one's whereabouts. Saintnu, v.t. re. To make fit; f. -i, pl. -é.

Sájan, n.m. (S. Sajjana.) A term for a husband. (Also sâjn.) Sájí, n.f. The actual passage of the sun from one sign of the zodiac into another.

Sájnu v.t. re. To skin a sacrificed goat or sheep.

Sájrá, -u, ad. m.; f. i, pl. -é. Fresh. As: Sájrá dúd: Fresh milk. Sájru chopar. Fresh butter. Sájri chís. Fresh water. Sakérá, n.m. Readiness. -honá, v.i. ir. To be ready.

Sákh, n.m. Relation. (Also shákh.)

Sálag-misrí, n.f. A kind of herb used as a medicine.

Samá, n.m. (S. Samaya.) Time, a career, period, age. Ebe samá burá lági-guwá, "It's now an iron age."

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Samáná, n.m. Supply, forces.

Samánu, v.i. re. To die; f. -í, pl. -é.

Sambhál, n.f. A present of edibles to a relative. -lan', v.i. ir.
To take care.

Sambhálnu, v.t. re. To put in a safe place; f. -í, pl. -é.

Sambhalnu, v.i. re. To be careful; f.-i, pl.-é.

Sambhláwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to put in a safe place.

Sámbhnu, v.t. re. To receive or accept; f. -í, pl. -é.

Sambhwanu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to receive; f. -i, pl. -é.

Sametá, n.m. An agricultural implement.

Same'áwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to gather or collect; f. -1, pl. -é.

Sametnu, v.t. re. To gather, to collect; f. -i, pl. -é.

Samonu, v.i. re. To mix cold water in too hot water to make it fit to touch for bathing.

Samptó, n.f. (S. Sampatti.) Prosperity.

Samund, n.m. (S. Samudra.) The sea, ocean.

Sá'n, nf. Symbol, sign. Proverb: Chatré dittí sá'n, Murkhé chaki jâ'n. "A wise man made a sign, and a foolish man took a stone."

Sán, n.m. Obligation. -mán-ná, v.i. re. To be obliged.

Sanáí, n.f. A damp place.

Sanái, n.f. A musical pipe. -bájni, v.i. re. To sound the pipe.

Sandrí, n./. Evening, sunset.

Sané, pre. With. Sané joré tú bhithrá kwai áyá? "Why did you come in with the shoes?"

Sanchá a m. A massaga a word doná ná ir. To sand a

Sanehá, n.m. A message, a word. -dená, v.i. ir. To send a message.

Sanewnu, v.i. re. (1) To resemble; f.-1, pl. -e., v.t. re. (2) To build a house like a deity's temple or the palace of a chief. This is a kind of sacrilege and the house thus built cannot be occupied by its owner, and he who constructs such an imitation is severely punished.

Sang, n.m. Companionship.

Sangí, sangú, n.m. A companion, a comrade.

Sangú, n.m. See Sangi. (Basháhr.)

Sanhasar, ad. (S. Sahasra.) 1000. (Also sansar.)

Sáňj, n.f. (S. Sáyankála.) Evening. -honi, v.i. ir. To become evening.

Sánjnu, v.t. re. To collect, to amass; f. -í, pl. -é.

Sanjowá, n.m. Armour. -láná, v.i. re. To put on armour.

Sank, n.f. A sign. -deni, v.i. ir. To give a sign (by eye or hand).

Sansar, ad. See Sahansar.

Saňsárí, n.f. (S. Saňsára, H. saňsár.) The world.

Sánthá, n.m. A deed of grant.

Sár, n.f. Manner.

Sarbárambh, n.m. (S.) A rite observed a week before a marriage or sacred thread ceremony.

Sardá. -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Enough, abundant.

Sardhá, n.f. (S. Shraddhá, faith.) (1) Wish, desire. (2) Faith, belief.

Sarg, n.m. (S. Swarga.) The sky, firmament, the ether.

Sarp, n.m. (S. Sarpa.) A snake.

Sartái, n.m. A kind of flower; -rí. n.t. A kind of single flower.

Sárté, adv. Everywhere.

Sá's, n.f. Mother-in-law. (Also Shá's.)

Sáshan, n.f. A free grant.

Satáhát, ad. 67. -wáň., m. -wiň, f. -weň, pl. Sixty-seventh.

Satánwé, stánwé, ad. 97.

Sáthí, ad. (1) Together, with. (2) n.m. A companion, a comrade.

Sáthrá, n.m. Bedding. -páná, v.i. re. To spread a bed.

Satmi, n.f. (S. Saptami.) The seventh day of the bright or dark half of a month. (Also sáteň.)

Satró, ad. 17. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. -weň, pl. Seventeenth.

Sátt, ad. (S. Sapta.) 7. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. -weň, pl. Seventh. Sátú, n.m. Roasted flour.

Sau, ad. (S. Shata.) 100.

Sauj, n.m. (S. Ashwina.) The sixth Hindú month corresponding to September.

Sa-uň -wáň, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Level.

Saurá, n.m. Father-in-law. (Also Shaurá.)

Sawáň karná, v.t. ir. (1) To make level. (2) To remit; f.-í, pl.-é.

¹ Schérau, n.m. The act of purification, purity.

Scheráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to purify; f.-i, pl.-é.

Schernu, v.t. re. To purify, to make pure; f.-i, pl. -é.

Sdhúli, n.f. A kind of wild plant used for making mats. (Also shdhúli.)

Sé, pro. m. and f. He or she or they. Sé kindá dewá? "Where is he gone?'' Sc ká karó? "What is she doing?.'' Sc kun thié? "Who were they?''

Sefo, n.f. Foam.

Sei, ad. The same.

Sejá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. That one.

Sejlá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Of that or of this. (Also sejá.) Sé'k, n.m. Heat (of fire.) -lágná, v.i. re. To feel heat (of fire).

Sekáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to heat; f.-i, pl.-é.

Sek-dé-lágnu, v.i. re. To begin to bask; /.-i, pl.-é.

Sék-láná, v.i. re. To bask in the sun or before a fire; f.-í,-é.

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Seki-lanu, v.i. ir. To put before fire or the sun; f.-i, pl.-é.

Seknu, v.i. re. To bask or to make warm; f.-i, pl.-é.

Sém. n.f. A kind of bean used as a vegetable.

Sená, n.f. (S.). An army, a flock, a herd.

Séo, n.m. Apple.

Séok, n.m. One who manages the corvée or begår. (Kullú.)
(Also séwak, fr. S. Sevaka, a servant)

Sér, n.m. A measure of grain equal to 6 chittáks of a pakká sér.

Sétkháná, n.m. A chief's latrine.

Sewá, n.f. (S.) Service.

Séwak, n.m. See Séok.

Sgáí, n f. (H. sagái.) Betrothal. -hoṇi. v.i. ir. To betroth. Sghe'áwṇu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to put together; f.-í, pl.-é. Sgheṭṇu, v.t. re. To put together, to amass, to heap; f.-í, pl.-é.

Sghétuwnu, v.i. re. To be amassed; f.-í, pl.-é.

Sgóh, n.m. pl. A term for the 16 days, the last week of Sáwan and the first of Bhádo. During this period rain is said to be very lucky and sunshine very undesirable. Sgóh bashdé chángé hó. "It is good to have rain during the Sgóh."

Sgotrí, n.f. Brinjals. (Bashahr.) (Also sgotrú, m.)

Sháa', n.m. Strength. Ebé sháa ní ruwá. "I have no strength now." (Syn. sháh.)

Sháchnu, v.t. re. To seize; f.-í, pl.-é.

Shadawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to call, or invite; f. -i, -é.

Shádí-denu, v.t. ir. To allow to call; f.-í, pl.-é. Shádí-ró-ánnu, v.t. re. To be invited; f.-í. pl.-é.

Shádnu, v.t. re. To call, to invite, to send for; f.-í, pl.-é.

Shácrá, n.m. A kind of plant, bearing purple flowerets that bloom in October and November.

Sháh, n.m. (1) Breath. (2) Strength. (3) Life.

Sháh, sháhtú, n.m. Strength (of man.) -fá'ná, v.i.re. To become strong. -ní-rauná, v.i. ir. To become old.

Sháhí, sháí, n.m. A porcupine.

Sháhtu, n.m. Breathing or the breath.

Sháh u-laná, v.i. ir. To kill, to take life.

Shai. ad. Right.

Shaié, adv. Certainly, no doubt.

Shail, n.f. A wooden bolt (chitkhani in Hindi).

Shailu, n.m. pl. A kind of plant which produces black thorns, but no fruit.

Shair, n.f. A precipice, a rocky place.

Sháií, n.f. Strength, force. Shájić, adr. Loudly, aloud.

Shaká, -u, ad. m.; f. -í. pl. -é. Own, related, uterine.

Shákh, n.m. (1) Relation, alliance. (2) A branch. -o, pl. crops.

Shákrá, n.m. Bark (of a tree).

Shálá, n.m. Brother-in-law.

Shalá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Cold, chilly.

Shalawnu, v.t. re. To make cool; f.-i, pl.-é.

Shaléwnu, v.t. re. See Shaláwnu.

Sháli, n.f. Sister-in-law.

Shalk, n.f. A heavy shower (of rain). Proverb:-

Bádlí páki bhalkó, Pání ri lági shalkó.

"When the clouds are red at morn, Then there will be a heavy shower of rain."

Shalni, n.f. pl. Pain, aches. -parni, v.i. re. To feel pain.

Shalnu, v.i. re. To become cold.

Shaló, n.m. pl. Locusts.

Shaluwnu, v.i. re. To be cool or cold.

Shamanu, samanu, v.i. re. To die.

Shana, n.m. A kind of grass that grows in fields in the rains. (Also shani.)

Shanan, n.m. (S. Snana.) Bathing, a bath.

Shanchar, n.m. (S. Shanishchara.) Saturn or Saturday.

Shand ad. Barren of a (cow or buffalo).

Shándnu, v.i. re. To fatigue.

Shándnu, v.i. re. To attach, a ploughshare.

Shángal, n.f. The chain of a door. (S. Shrinkhalá.)

Shangi, n.f. The throat.

Shanni, n.f. A small room in a house to keep sheep in.

Shant, n.f. (S. Shanti, peace.) A religious observance in honour of a deity.

Shápr, n.m. A rock.

Sharain, n.f. (H. sharm.) Shame. -awni, v.i. re. To be ashamed.

Shardá, n.m. A kind of tax.

Shárh, Hár, n.m. (S. Ashárha.) The third Hindú month, corresponding to June.

Shárhí, n.f. The autumnal harvest.

Sharin, shrinn, n.f. The smell of anything rotting.

Sharu, n.m. pl. Hail. -parné, v.i. re. To fall, of hail.

Shá's, n.f. See Sá's.

Shashá, n.m. A hare. (Syn. far-rú.)

Shashawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to rub oil or butter on the body.

Shashnu, v.t. re. To rub oil or butter on the body.

Shashuwnu, v.i. re. To be rubbed.

Shátá, n.m.; f.-i, pl.-é. bark (of a tree).

Sha é, n.m. pl. The straw of the crop called kodá, or kaunni, used as fodder for cattle.

Shá h, ad. 60. -wáň, ad. m. f.; -wiň, pl. -weň. The sixtieth. Shá i, n.f. Shingle, a piece of wood. Shá î, pl. Shingles.

Shatkawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow o escape; f. -i, pl. -é.

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Shatknu, v.i. re. To escape, to run away; f.-1, pl.-é.

Shatt, adv. Soon, instantly, immediately. -cháré. adv. At once.

Sháu, n.m. A porcupine. (Also shái.)

Shau, n. (H. saugand.) A swearing. -deni, v.t. ir. To put on oath. Tere shau, án ní dewndá. "I swear on you, I am not going.

Shauk, shauká, n.f. A rival.

Shaukan, n.f. A rival wife.

Shaul, n.m. A term for land that may be under direct cultivation by a chief. Syn. báshá.

Shaulawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to shear wool (of sheep.)

Shaulnu, v.t. re. To shear wool (of sheep); f. -i, pl. -é.

Shaurá, n.m. See Saurá.

Shdhú, i, n.f. See Sdhúli.

Shehrá, n.m. (H.) A garland to be worn at a wedding.

Shekhi, n.f. (H.) Boasting. -márni, v.i. re. To boast of.

Shékr, shekrá, n.m. Bark or shell.

Shekrá, n.m. See Shékr.

Shel, n.m. Fibre used to make ropes. It is produced from the bark of a tree called by ohl which is also used to feed cattle.

Shéli, shelti. The root of an esculent plant called kachálú.

Sher, sheri, n.t. A long field, generally of rice.

Sheró, n.f. (S. Sharshapa.) A kind of mustard, (Sinapis dichotoma.)

Shershó, n.m. pl. See Sheró.

Shetawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to throw away; f. -1, pl. -6. Shetnu, v.t. re. To cast away; f. -1, pl. -6.

Shetuwnu, v.i. re. To be cast away; f. -1, pl. -é.

Shiál, shyál, n.m. (S. Shrigála.) A jackal.

Shighra, -u, adv. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. (S. Shighra.) Soon, immediately.

Shikh-deni, v.t. ir. To give good advice, to instruct, to bring up.

Shikrá, n.m. A small bird of prey.

Shil, n.f. A stone to grind on.

Shil, n.f. A large stone.

Shilá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Not sunny. A place where the sun shines but for a short time.

Shim, n.m. Mucus.

Shimáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to give off mucus; f.-1, pl.-é.

Shimnu, v.i. re. To excrete mucus.

Shing, n.m. (S. Shringa.) A horn. -o. pl. Horns.

Shinghawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to smell; f. -1, pl. -6.

Shinghnu, v.t. re. To smell; f. -i, pl. -é.

Shir, n.m. (S.) Head. -námá, n.m. Heading.

Shiri, n.f. (1) The head of a sacrificed goat or sheep. (2) A

queen. Sáré paháró rí shirí. "The queen of all the hills."

Shish, n.m. (H.) See Shir.

Shkon, n.m. The act of drying in the sun.

Shkonu, v.t. re. To dry (grain in the sun).

Shkothá, skothá, n.m. A gift of grain given to menials for their services at each harvest.

Shlákhrá, n.m. A kind of green wood-pecker.

Shlaun, n.m. A kind of intestinal worm for which sweet medicine is the best remedy.

Shlél, n.f. Peace of mind. -parni, v.i. re. To be pleased or content.

Shlotrí, n.m. (S. Shálihotrin.) One versed in the treatment of horses.

Shná't, n.m. A beam or timber in a room for keeping sheep.

Shnáwnu, v.t. re. To cause to hear, or listen; j.-í, pl.-é.

Shobal, n.m. A sharp point (of anything).

Shob'á, shobh'á or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Handsome, pretty.

Shobhta, shobta, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Pretty, fine, of good quality.

Shô'g n.m. Mourning, sadness. -kholṇá, v.i. re. A ceremony in which a goat is sacrificed to remove mourning. -mán-ná, v.i. re. To observe the mourning ceremony.

Shojá, n.m. (S. Shotha.) Swelling. -áwná or -honá, v.i. re. and ir. To swell.

Shoňrú, n.m. The wild carrot.

Shoshawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to suck; f. -1, pl. -6.

Shóshl, n./. A hole. Syn. o'l.

Shoshnu, v.i. re. To suck; f.-1, pl.-é.

Shoshuwnu, v.i. re. To be sucked; f.-i, pl.-é.

Sho't, n.f. A small quantity of tobacco, to be smoked at one time.

Shótá, n.m. A sharp piece of wood. -lágṇá, v.i. re. To be pierced with a sharp bit of wood.

Shotawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to smoke; f.-i, pl.-é.

Shoʻnu, v.t. re. To smoke. (Basháhr.)

Shotuwnu, v.i. re. To be smoked.

Shiá or shiáh, n.f. Headache. -lágṇi, v.i. re. To feel headache.

Shrá'd, n.m. (S. Shráddha.) A religious ceremony in which food is offered in the names of ancestors.

Shriknu, v.i. re. To open the mouth. Porá shrik. "Get out."

Shuchá or -u, ad. m : f.-í, pl.-é. Pure, unpolluted, clean.

Shudhi, n.f. (S. Shuddhi, purity.) Purity, cleanliness, purification.

Shujáwnu, v.t. re. To show, to cause to witness; f. -1, pl. -é.

Shujnu, shujhnu, v.t. re. (1) To see, to witness. (2) To swell.

Shukr, n.m. (S. Shukra.) Friday.

Shul, nf. An ache or pain in the stomach or ribs.

Shundhá, n.m. Assafætida. -hoi-jáná, v.i. ir. To get rid of mourning.

Shungr, n.m. (S. Shukara.) A hog, a boar.

Shunhawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to sweep; f. -i, pl. -é.

Shunn, n.f. A broom. -deni, v.i. ir. To sweep.

Shúňhnu, v.t. re. To sweep; f.-í, pl.-é.

Shunhwnu, v.i. re. To be swept; f.-i, pl.-é.

Shunhta, n.m. A broom.

Shun-nu, v.t. re. To hear, to listen; f. -1, pl. -é.

Shuntá, n.m. A pig; f.-1, pl.-6.

Shunth, n.f. (S. Shunthi.) Dried ginger.

Shunwnu, v.i. re. To be swept; f.-i, pl.-é.

Shunuwnu, v.t. re. To be heard; f.-i, pl.-é.

Shurmá, ad. (H.) Valiant, brave.

Shwala, n.m. A great cry. -dena, v.i. ir. To cry out loud.

Shwar, n.m. (H. sawar.) A rider, a horseman.

Shwari, n.f. (H. sawari.) Conveyance.

Shwari, n.f. A small plot of land in front of a house, used for cultivating vegetables, etc.

Shwarnu, v.t. re. To ride; f. -1, pl. -é.

Shwaruwnu, v.i. re. To be ridden; f.-i, pl.-é.

Shyail, n.m. (S. Shrigála.) A jackal.

S-hyáru, n.m. A kind of tree.

S-hyaili, n.f. A contemporary (of equal age).
S-hyaili-rá, ad. m.; -ri, f. -re, pl. Of equal age.

Siánu-de-bakhté, adv. In old age.

Sid, n.f. A kind of bread; -o. pl.

Sidhi-bináyak, n.m. (S. Siddhivináyaka.) The deity Ganesh.

Simirnu, v.t. re. To bear in mind; f.-1, pl.-é.

Simmu, v.t. re. (S. Smarana.) To remember, to keep in mind.

Sinch, n.f. Sprinkling.

Sincháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to irrigate; f.-i, pl.-é.

Sinchnu, v.t. re. To irrigate, to sprinkle; f. -i, pl. -é.

Sinehuwnu, v.i. re. To be irrigated or sprinkled; f.-1, pl.-é.

Sínj, n.f. The joint of a metal vessel.

Sinjáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to repair or irrigate.

Sinjnu, v.t. re. (1) To repair. (2) To irrigate or sprinkle.

Sinjuwnu, v.i. re. To be repaired or irrigated; f.-1, pl.-é.

Siňun, n.f. See Siňwn.

Siňwánu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to sew; f. -í, pl. -é.

Síňwn, síňwňí, n.f. A needle.

Siňwní, n.f. See Síňwn.

Siňwnu, v.t. re. To sew; f. -i, pl. -ė.

Síňwunu, v.i. re. To be sewn; f.-í, pl.-é.

¹ S-h: both these letters are separately pronounced, hence the dash.

Sion, n.f. A boundary. -láni, v.i. re. To divide by setting up boundary stones.

Sit, n.f. The upper part of a field.

Siund, n.f. A line made by combing the hair on the head.

Siuni, n.t. See Sinwn or Sinwni.

Sjérnu, v.t. re. To make wet, to moisten; f. -i, pl. -é.

Skór, n.f. The impurity in a woman's delivering a child.

Amongst the kith and kin up to seven generations this impurity lasts for ten days. -honi, v.i. ir. To become impure for ten days on the birth of a child. (Also sútak.)

Skernu, v.t. re. To repair, to mend; f.-1, pl.-é.

Skothá, n.m. See Shkothá.

Sóch, n.m. (S. Shocha) Thinking or a thought. -paṛṇé, v.i. re. To be thoughtful.

Socháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to think; f.-í, pl.-é.

Sochnu, v.t. re. To think, to consider; f.-i, pl.-é.

Sochúwnu, v.i. re. To be thought or considered; f.-í, pl.-é.

Sócná, n.m. (H. soná, S. Suvarna.) Gold. -é-rá, -u, ad. m.; f.-i, pl.-é. Golden.

Sohá, n.m. A kind of plant, used as a vegetable.

Sojí, n.f. Remembrance. -rauni, v.t. re. To remember, to recollect.

Solá, n.m. (1) A ceremony performed 16 days after a death.

(2) A small grain measure = 5 chitaks.

Soló, ad. 16. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. The sixteenth.

Sonf, n.f. (H.) Anise seed.

Soňwár, swáňr or swár, n.m. (H. sombár, S. Somavára) Monday. Sothá, n.m. A term used for the compensation paid for a wife on her going to another man on payment of the marriage expenses, of which one rupee is first paid as earnest money.

Sná'r, n.m. (S. Swarnakára and H. sunár.) A goldsmith.

Spáňjlí, n.f. The slough or skin of a snake.

Spári, n.f. (H. supári.) Nut.

Sráfawnu, v.t. To cause or allow to scrutinise; f. -i, pl. -é.

Sráfnu, v.t. re. To scrutinise or examine, to inspect, to try. Sráfuwnu, v.i. re. To be examined or scrutinised; f. -1, pl. -é.

Sráhnu, v.t. re. To praise; f. -í, pl. -é.

Sráhwnu, v.i. re. To be praised; f. -i, pl. -é.

Srailé, n.m. pl. A kind of wild edible root.

Sról, n.m. A term for a chief's servants, who are authorised to enter the female apartments. [ments.

Sroliyá, n.m. One who is authorised to enter the female apart-Stáj, n.m. See Astáj.

Súá, u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Red, crimson.

Sugr, ad. Wise, handsome, good.

Suhét, n.f. The sight of one who is disliked. Proverb:—
Dukhné chó't, kanaudué suhét. "A painful limb is often
hurt again and he who is disliked is often seen.

Súi, n.m. A tailor. (Basháhr.)

[calf.

Súi-hundí, ad. f. One who has been delivered of a child or Súitá, n.m. A customary present of clarified butter and wheat flour to a woman who has given birth to a child.

Sujhawnu, v.i. re. (1) To foretell. (2) To show; f. -1, pl. -é. Sujhnu, v.t. re. To see, to witness, to notice; f. -1, pl. -é.

Sujhuwnu, v.i. re. To be seen; f.-i, pl.-é.

Sujnu, v.i. re. (1) To swell; f.-i, pl.-é. (2) To be successful in an ordeal.

Sukhná n.f. A desire,

Sukhnu, v. t. re. To like, to appreciate; f.-i, pl. -é.

Sukhpál, n.m. A palanquin, of a chief.

Sukonu, v.t. re. See Shkonu.

Súl, n.m. pl. (1) Wisdom. (2) An ache in the belly or ribs. -ó-rá, -ru. ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Of good quality.

Sulé, adv. Slowly. Sulé kwai ní japdá? "Why don't you speak slowly?"

Sunu, súwnu, v.i. re. To bring forth; f.-i, pl.-é.

Supná, n.m. (S. Swapna, H. supná.) A dream. -dekhná, v.i. re. To dream.

Sur, n.m. (S. Sura.) The deity.

Surg, n.f. (1) (H. surang.) A tunnel; (2) n.m, Paradise. (From S. Swarga.)

Sútak, n.m. See Skór.

Sutáwnu, v.t. re. To send to sleep; f.-i, pl.-é.

Suthan, n.f. Trousers.

Sutnu, v.i. re. To sleep; f.-i, pl.-é.

Sutuwnu, v.i. re. To be asleep.

Súwnu, v.i. re. See Sunu.

Swád, ad. (S. Swádu.) Tasteful, sweet. -hoṇu, v.i. ir. To be tasteful. -cháṇ-ṇu, v.i. re. To cook tastefully.

Swáh, n.f. Ashes.

Swár, n.m. See Soňwár.

Swárnu, v.t. re. To shave.

Swáruwnu, v.i. re. To be shaved.

 \mathbf{T}

Taa, adv. Then, at that time.

Tabákhu, n.m. (H. tamákhú.) Tobacco. -piná, v.i. re. To smoke.

Tabé, adv. Then.

Tadí, adv. At that time.

Tadká, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. The then, of that time.

Tádnu, v.i. re. To stretch, to spread; f.-i, pl.-é. Proverb; Jetnu khátan hó, tetni tádni, "one ought to stretch one's feet out in proportion to one's quilt (one ought to spend according to one's means). Tágá, n.m. (1) Thread. (Fr. H. Dhágá.) (2) The sacred thread.

Tágat, n./. (P. táqat.) Strength, might, power. -ní-rauni, v.i. ir. To become weak.

Taggar, n.m. (S. Tagaru.) A plant the root of which is used as a medicine (*Tabernaemontana coronaria*).

Tahair, tehair or tyahair, n.m. (H. tyohár.) A feast day.

Tai, adv. Then. (Basháhr.)

Tai, n.f. A large iron vessel for cooking málpúrás. -láni, v.i. re. To cook a rich cake or málpúrá.

 $Tail\acute{a}$, -u, ad.m; f. -i, pl. -e. Sunny. (Syn. $rag\acute{a}r\acute{a}$.)

Taim ai, n./. A kind of fig tree with a large fruit.

Tainso, adv. On that day. (From S. Taddivasa.)

Taithá, taithu, n.m. A kind of flat spoon used to turn bread, etc. Taká, takká, n.m. pl. -é. (1) An obsolete term for a rupee. (2) One anna. (3) Six pies.

Taká á, n.m. (H. thikáná.) A limit. -karná, v.i. ir. To make room. -ní-rauná, v.i. ir. To be beyond a limit.

Takáwul, n.f. A term for the money presented to a village deity.

Ták'u, n.m. A small wooden spindle used for spinning wool.

Takltu, n.m. A small wooden spindle used for spinning pasm.

Tákņu, v.i. re. (1) To wait for ; f. -i, pl. -é. (2) To sec.

Tákú, n.m. A kind of wild tree.

Tál, n.m. (H.) A pond, a lake or tank. -o. pl.

Tá á, n.m. (H.) An evasion, putting aside. -karná, v.i. ir. To put aside.

Talab, n.f. (1) Food for a chief. (2) Salary.

Talá vnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to roast in clarified butter.

Ta áwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to put aside or evade.

Táilí, n./. (H tallí.) A bit of cloth. -láni, v.i. re. To repair.

Talnu, v.t. re. To roast in clarified butter; f. -i, pl. -é.

Tá nu, v.t. re. To clean grain, etc.; f. -í, pl. -é.

Tálnu, v.i. re. To be put aside, to evade; f. -í, pl. -é.

Talrí, tur-ri, n.f. A kind of esculent root, called ratátú in the plains.

Tamáchá, n.m. A slap. -báhṇa, v.i. rc. To slap or to strike with the open hand.

Tamak, n./. A large kettledrum, such as is seen at the Sípí Fair. Támat, n.m. A grain measure. (Also támat.)

Támsú, n.m. A vessel. (Basháhr.)

Táň, pro. Thee. Aň táň ghá' demá: I'll give thee the grass.

Táná, n.m. A loom.

Táná, n.m. An ironical speech.

Tanáw, n.m. The act of entangling. -dé-fashnu, v.i. re. To fall into a difficulty.

Tanáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to stretch; f. -i, pl. -é. Tánáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to entangle; f. i, pl. -é.

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Tan-khe, pro. To you or to thee.

Tan-nu, v.t. re. To spread, to stretch; f. -1, pl. -4.

Tan-nu, v.i. re. To get entangled; f.-i, pl.-é.

Tanó-manó-rá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Welcome, agreeable, desir-

Táň-uň, adv. So long, or until. See Jáň-uň.

Taňvíň, ad. More. Táň taňyiň bi chaňyíň? Do you want more?

Taňvíňvéň, con. Again.

Táo, táw, (1) n.m. Burning. (2) A sheet.

Táo'á, táwlá or -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Of hot temper.

Táp, n.m. (S. Tápa.) (1) Heat. (2) Fever. -áwná or charná, v.i. re. and ir. To suffer from fever.

Tap, n.m. (S. Tapas, penance.) Majestic influence, pl. -o.

Tapat, n.f. (S. Tapta.) Heat.

Tapáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to escape; f. -í, pl. -é.

Tapí-jánu, v.i. ir. To be angry; f. -í, pl. -é.

Tápnu, v.t. re. To overcome, to surmount, to conquer: f. -i, pl. -é.

Tápnu, v.i. re. To bask: f. -i. pl. -é.

Taponu, v.t. re. To make warm, to heat in the fire; f. -i, pl. -é.

Tapównu, v.i. re. To be heated; f.-i. pl.-é.

Tapri, n.f. A hut, a small dwelling.

Tápuwnu, v.i. re. To be surmounted; f. -í, pl. -é.

Tápuwnu, v.i. rc. To be burnt; /. -i, pl. -é.

Tar, taur, n.m. A place where a river is crossed in a boat.

Tarají, n.f. A poll-tax on chamárs. (Kuthár.)

Taráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to cross (a river).

Tarnu, v.i. re. To be crossed: f. -i. pl. - $\dot{e}.$

Tárnu, v.t. re. (1) To cause or allow to cross. (2) To do one's best.

Tarpagár, n. A constable. (Once used in Kullú.)

Tar-rí, n.f. See Ta'rí.

Tashkáwnu, v. t. re. To cause or allow to move, f. i, pl. -é.

Tashknu, v. i. re. To be off, to go away, to move; f. -i, pl. -é.

Tátá or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Dumb, mute. Tátá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Hot, heated.

Táti-lágni, v. i. re. To be in trouble. Taundi, n.f. Summer, the hot weather.

Taur, n.m. See Tar.

Taur, n.f. A plant, whose leaves are used for making leaf dishes. Its bark is used to make ropes.

Táw, n.m. See Táo.

Táw á, ad. Sce Táolá.

Tayín, n.f. Bough of a tree.

Tayíň, (1) con. Again. (2) prep. For, for the sake of.

Tegá, n.m. A kind of sword.

Tehair, n.m. See Tahair.

Téi, ad. 23. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -wéň, pl. The twenty-third.

Té'k, n.f. Firmness. -rauni, v.i. ir. To be firm.

Teká, n.m. A prop, a support, a stay. -dená, v.i. ir. To support.

Tekáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to prop or support; f.-i, pl.-é.

Tekņu, v.i. re. To support, to prop; f. -i, pl. -é.

Tél, n.m. (H.) Oil. -árú, n.m. An oil pot.

Té'!, n.f. Sweat. -parni, v.i. re. To perspire.

Telárú, n.m. See Tél.

Telo-ru-lotkú, n.m. An oil pot.

Telr, n.m. A young one (of a bird). pl. Telrú.

Ţeļrú, n.m. pl. See Ţeļr.

Tém, n.m. (E.) Time.

Tenu, adv. See Tishu. (Basháhr.)

Téňshi, adv. On that day.

Terá, adv. See Tishu. (Bághal, Nálágarh, Biláspúr and Kunihár.)

Terá, -u, pro. m.; f. -i, pl. -e. Thy, thine.

Térash, n.f. (S. Trayodashí.) The thirteenth day of the bright or dark half of a month.

Teró, ad. 13. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -wen, pl. The thirteenth.

Té'ru, ad. See Tishu. (Balsan and Madhán.)

Tes, pro. Him, to him.

Tesé, pro. f. agentive. By her.

Tesó, pro. f. Her, to her.

Tesorá, -u, pro m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Her, of her.

Tesru, -á, pro. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. His, of him.

Tétálí, ad. 43. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. The forty-third.

Teté, adv. There. -dewá, phrase. Let him go.

Téthi, adv. There.

Tethiyá, adv. At the very spot.

Téti, ad. 33. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. The thirty-third.

Teti, adv. See Tethi. (Bhajjí.)

Tetņu, -á, adv. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. So much.

Tgádá, n.m. (P. taqázá.) (1) Dunning. (2) A term used for the clothes given to a tailor to sew. -karná, v.i. ir. To dun.

Thádá, n.m. pl. -é. (1) A kind of grasshopper. (2) A boundary pillar.

Thagrá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Wise, clever. -honu, v.i. ir. To be wise.

Tháhat, ad, 68. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. Sixty-eighth. Thahattar, ad, 78. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. The seventy.

Thahattar, ad. 78. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. The seventy-eighth.

Tháhri-jánu, v.i. ir. To cease raining.

Tháir, v.i. re. (1) To cease, to stop raining. (2) To be ill. Thái, ad. 28. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. The twenty-eighth.

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¹ T-hair, n.m. See Tahair.

1 T-hairal, n.f. A customary cash payment made on certain feast days to a daughter, or sister.

¹ T-hairthá, n.m. A customary gift, given to menials such as the nái, chamár, dhobí, etc., on feast days.

Tháká-huňdá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Ill, indisposed, sick.

Thakáí, n.f. Fatigue.

Thakáwnu, v.t. re. To tire; f. -i, pl. -é.

Thákar, n.m. The title of a petty Hill chief.

Tháknu, v.i. re. To become ill, to fall sick; f.-i, pl.-é.

Thaknu, v.i. re. To fatigue; f. -1, pl. -é.

Thakrái, n.f. A term for the petty Hill States, governed by Thákars.

Thákr-dwárá, n.m. A deity temple, especially Vishnu. Thákri, n./. A grain measure equal to one sér pakká.

Thákur, n.m. (H.) The deities in general. -dhwái, n.f. An oath on a god. Thákur-dhwái, áň jái áyá tetai. "I say on oath that I have been there.

Thá'!, n.m. A large dish, especially of a chief or his wife.

Thál, n.f. An oath of prohibition. -deni, v.i. ir. To prohibit by an oath.

Thálá, n.m. (H. thallá.) Bottom. Proverb: Chiso dá páthar páyá taa thále khe dewau. "If a stone is cast into the water it goes down to the bottom."

Thalawnu, v.t. rc. To cause or allow to prohibit by an oath.

Thálnu, v.t. re. To prohibit by an oath; f. -í, pl. -é.

Tháluwnu, v.i. re. To be prohibited by an oath; f. -1, pl. -6.

Thámbhá, n.m. (H. khambhá.) A beam of timber.

Thambháo, thambháw, n.m. Ceasing, the act of being quiet. Thambháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to hold; f. -1, pl. -é.

Thámbhnu, v.t. re. To hold, to catch; f. -i, pl. -é.

Thámbhuwnu, v.t. re. To be held; f. -í, pl. -é.

Thámo, n.m. pl. Beams of timber.

Thána, n.m. (Ĥ. tháná.) Police post.
Thánd, n.f. Cold. -honi, v.i. ir. To become cold.

Thándá, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -ė. Cold.

Thanak, n.f. A tap, a shooting. Proverb—Snáro ri thanak thanak, Lhwáro rí ekkai. "The goldsmith's many taps are equal to an ironsmith's single blow.

Tháni, n.f. (S. Sthána.) The front place of a house.

Thanirá, thnírá, n.m. A disease under the navel.

Thán wé, ad. 98. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. The ninety-eighth.

Thán wlá, n.m. A basin for water round the root of a tree.

Thaper, n.m. A slap. -dená, v.t. ir. To slap.

T-hárá, u, pro. m.; f. i, pl. -é. Your or yours.

¹ T-h: both letters are distinctly pronounced.

Thari, n.f. A handle of wood, of a sickle, etc. Thárnu, v.t. re. To bury; f.-í, pl.-é. Tháro, ad. 18. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. The eighteenth. Thatáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to settle; f. -i, pl. -ė. Thátnu, v.t. re. To settle, to set right, to amend; f.-i, pl.-é. Thá uwnu, v.i. re. To be settled; f. -i, pl. -é. Thaurnu, v.i. re. To become ill; f.-i, pl.-é. Thechá-thechi, n.f. Beating down. -honi, v.i. ir. To be beaten. Thecháwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to beat or strike. Thechnu, v.t. re. To beat, to strike, to hit; f.-i, pl.-é. Thechuwnu, v.i. re. To be beaten; f.-i, pl.-é. Thé'k, n.f. Prohibition, restriction. -parni, v.i. re. To be prohibited. Thekáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to prohibit; f. -1, pl. -é. Theknu, v.t. re. To prohibit, to restrict; f.-1, pl.-é. Thék parni, v.i. re. See Thé'k. Thekuwnu, v.i. re. To be prohibited or restricted; f. -i. pl. -é. Théfr, ad. Foolish. Thewá, n.m. See Nag. Thind, n.m. A youth. Thindá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Greasy, oily. -honu, v.i. ir. To be greasy or oily. Thindhu, v.i. re. To play a trick; f. -i, pl. -é. Thingá, -u, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. One who pretends. Thingnu, v.i. re. To be pretended; f. -i, pl. -é. This, n.f. A boast. -marni, v.i. rc. To be boasted of. -nu, v. To boast. Thiú, v. Was. Also thiá, m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Thnírá, n.m. See Thanírá. Thó'ch, n.f. A mistake, an error, a blunder. -jáni, v.i. ir. To commit a mistake. -parni, v.i. re. To make a mistake. Thófr, ad. See Théfr. Thokáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to threaten or throw in; 1. -1, pl. -é. Thoknu, v.t. re. (1) To threaten or to throw in; f.-i, pl.-é. v t. re. To cohabit. (Basháhr.) Thokr, n.f. (H.) A stumble. -kháni, v.i. re. To stumble. Thoku, n.m. Sexual connection. (Basháhr.) -láná, v.i. re. To have sexual connection. Thokuwnu, v.i. re. To be threatened or thrown in; f. -i, pl. -é. Thor-rá, -u, ad. m.; f. i, pl. -é. (1) A little. (2) Less. Thor 1á-bhalrá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. More or less. Tho á, n.m. The male organ. Thosáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to root up; f. -i, pl. -é. Thosnu, v.t. re. To throw in, to thrust in; f. -i, pl. -é. Thosnu, v.t. re. To root up; f. -i, $pl. \cdot e$. Thosuwnu, v.i. re. To be rooted up; f. -i, pl. -é. Thráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to bury; f.-i, pl.-é.

Thráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to maintain; f.-i, pl.-é.

Thú, v. Was, pl. Thié.

Thúhar, n.m. (S. Shúrana.) A plant, (Bignonia Indica.)

Thuknu, v.i. re. To spit. (H.)

Thummé, n.f. A kind of tree.

Thú há, n.m. The water in a cow's footstep.

Thwara, n.m. A corvée of 8 days free work in a State. (Simla Hill States.)

Thwárú, n.m. A man who has to work on corvée for 8 days.

Tij, n.f. (S. Tritiya.) The third day of the bright or dark half of a month.

Tíká, n.m. The heir apparent of a chief.

Tiká-laná, v.t. re. To mark any one's forehead with sandal and pay him some cash. This custom is observed at a wedding or investiture with the sacred thread.

Tikáwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to stay; f.-1, pl.-é.

Tiknu, v.i. re. (1) To stay. (2) n.m. A mark on the fore-head of a beast.

Til, n.m. pl. Sesamum seeds.

Tiláru, tláru, n.m. An earthen pot to keep oil in.

Tilówé, n.m. pl. A kind of sweetmeat made of sesamum.

Timbrai, timrai, n.f. A thorny shrub, called téjbal in Hindí.

Tiň-dá, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. In it or in that.

Tiňdá, n.m. The fruit of the opium plant. (Also tiňdku.)

Tine, pro. m. and f They or by them. (Agentive.)

Tinien, pro. He or by him. (Agentive.) Tinien bolu. "He said."

Tinó, pro. m. and f. Them. -khé. For them or to them; -rá or-ru, m. -ri. f. -re. pl. Of them or their. -fa. From them. -dá or -du, m. -di, f. -de, pl. In them.

Tinu, ad. See Tishu. (Basháhr.)

Típ, n.f. A small horoscope. (Also tiprá, n.m.)

Tipá, n.m. A drop. -lágná, v.i. re. To leak.

Tipe-tarné, v.i. rc. pl. To repair a roof, to prevent leaking.

Tiprá, n.m. See Típ.

Tir, n.f. (1) A peak of a hill. (2) A rim.

Tír, n.f. (1) A crack. -áwni, v.i. re. To crack. (2) n.f. The Indian fruit called phút.

Tiri, adv. By way of the hill.

Tíri, n f. A narrow window.

Tirnu, v.i. re. To swim.

Tirth, n.m. (S. Tirtha. A sacred place, a holy shrine.

Tishá, tisá, ad. m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Such, so.

Tishká, -u, adv. m.; /. -í, pl. -é. To that side.

Tishkan, n.f. The act of slipping or tumbling.

lishkawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to slip or tumble; f. -i.

Tishkņu, v.i. re. To tumble, to slip; f. -i, pl. -ė.

Tishu, tisu, ad. So, such.

Tit, n.m. pl. -o. (S. Atithi, a guest.) A mendicant, a devotee.

Tittr, n.m. (H. titar.) A partridge.

Tittr-bittr. -honu, v.i. ir. To be dispersed.

Tiuri, n.f. A stern look. -badalni, v.i. re. To be angry or displeased.

Tláru, n.m. See Taláru.

Tláwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to weigh; f. -i, pl. -é.

Tmáchá, n.m. See Tamáchá.

Tmáru or -á. pro. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Your or yours.

Tmáshá, n.m. A pastime.

Tmhárá, -u, pro.m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Your or yours. Syn. thárá.

Todí, n.f. (1) A small corner of a field. (2) Name of a tune.

To'k, n.f. A pain (in the belly or waist). -lágni, v.i. re. To suffer from pain. (Also -áwni.)

Toká, n.m. A taunt. -dená, v.i. ir. To speak ironically. Tokni, n.f. A brass pot for water or cooking purposes.

Toknu, v.t. re. (1) To look at with an evil eye, to accost, to hinder, to stop. (2) A small brass vessel.

Tokrá, n.m. A basket.

Tokru, n.m. A grain receiver in a store-house. (Kullú.)

Tokuwnu, v.i. re. To be hindered or stopped. Tol, pre. Down, under. -iyá, adv. Downwards.

Tól, n.m. (H.) The act of weighing.

Tolá, n. m. (H) Twelve másás make one tolá. v. p.t. weighed. From Tolnu, to weigh.)

Tolawnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to weigh; f. -i, pl. -é. Tol-mól-karná, v.t. ir. To settle the price after weighing.

Tolnu, v.t. re. To weigh in the scales; f. -i, pl. -é.

Toluwnu, v.i. re. (1) To be weighed; f. -f, pl. -é. (2) To become uppermost.

Tómat, n.f. (P. tuhmat.) False accusation, calumny.

Tomat-lani, v.t. re. To accuse falsely.

Tomrá, n.m. See Tumrá.

Tonu, n.t. re. To seek by hand or touch; f. -1, pl. -6.

Tónwná, -u, ad.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Deaf. -honá, v.i. ir. To be deaf. Tóp, n.m. A hat.

Topí, n.f. (1) A cap. (2) A gun-cap. Torí, n.f. A long kind of pumpkin.

Totlá, ad.m.; f.-í, pl.-é. Lisping.

Traha'tar, ad. 73. -wan, m. -win, f. -wen, pl. The seventy-third.

Tráj, n.m. (P. ihtaráz.) Objection. -honá, v.i. ir. To be objected. -karná, v.i. re. To object.

Trájú, n.m. Scales.

Trá'k, n.m. A swimmer. (H. tairák.)

Trákri, tákri, n.f. A weighing machine.

Trá!, trár, n.f. (H. talwár.) A sword.

Tránwé, ad. 93. -wáň, m. -wiň, f. weň, pl. The ninety-third.

Trár, n.f. See Trál, pl. Trárí.

Tráss, n.m. (S. Trása.) Fear, terror. -honé, v.i. ir. To be

afraid. -lágne, v.i. re. To pine in trouble. -karné, v.i. ir. To be in trouble.

Tráwnu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to ford; f. -i, pl. -é.

Tréhat, ad. 63. -wáň, m. -weň, pl. -wíň, f. The sixty-third.

Treňsí, n.f. Three kansís make one treňsí. (Kullú.)

Trúnjá, ad. 53. -wáň, m. -wíň, f. -weň, pl. The fiftythird.

Tú, pro. Thou.

Túi, pro. Thou, thyself.

Tujó, pro. Thee or to thee. (Kángrá.) (Also tujhó.)

Tukná, v.t. re. (1) To bite. (2) To cut. (Kángrá.)

Tukrá, n.m. (H.) A bit, a piece.

Tula-dan, n.m. (S.) A gift of gold, valuables, grain, etc., of the donor's weight.

Tulnu, v.i. re. To slumber, to dose; f. -i, pl. -é.

Tuméň, pro. Ye, you. Syn. tushé or tuse.

Tumrá, n.m. (S. Tumbi.) The pumpkin used as a vegetable.

Tumri, n.f. The gourd, used as a vegetable.

Tuňdá, -u, ad.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. One who has no hands.

Túrí, n.m. pl. Musicians. Syn. bájgí, manglámukhí.

Turká, n.m. The act of seasoning cooked pulse.

Turknu, v.t. re. To season or give relish to cooked pulse; f.-i, pl.-é.

Turní, n.f. pl. Wives of musicians.

Turt-furt, adv. Instantly.

Tusé-tushé, pro. See Tuméň.

Tút, n.f. The act of falling short. -parni, v.i. re. To fall short.

Tútá-huňdá, -u, p. par. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Broken. (Also chútá huňdá.)

Tutnu, v.t. re. See Chutnu.

Tuwen, pro. Thou or by thee. (Agentive.)

Tuwnu, v.i. re. To be ready; f. -i, pl. -é. Sé ká mardá tuwá? "Is he ready to die?"

Twáná, -u, ad.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Supine. Sleeping on the back. (S. Uttána.)

Twár, n.m. (1) Sunday. (H. aintwár.) (2) Incarnation. -laná, v.i. ir. To be incarnated.

Tyahair, n.m. See Tahair.

Tyálá, n.m. pl. -é. A stove or oven made of stones. -láná, v.i. re. To make an oven of stones.

Tyár, ad. (H. ta/yár.) Ready. -honá, v. i. ir. To be ready.

Tyári, n. f. (H. tayyári.) Readiness. -honi, v.i. ir. To be ready. -karni, v.t. ir. To make ready.

U. v. Am and are, first person singular and plural of the irregular verb Honu, to be. Ai, (art) is its second person singular. Ubhá, -u, ad.m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Up. -é-honu, v.i. ir. To be up. Uch, ad. Of high caste. Uchá. ad. (H. úňchá.) Lofty, high; f. -í, pl. -é. Uchhab, n.m. (S. Utsava.) A festival, a jubilee. Uchhké, adv. Of pleasure, in jest. Uchh á,-u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Higher, loftier. Udáwnu, v.t. re. (H. uláná.) To cause or allow to fly; f. -í, pl. -é. Udnu, v.i. re. (H. urná.) To fly; ad. Flying. Ughrnu, v.i. re. To be opened; f. -i, pl. -é. U_{i} , n.m. (H. $\acute{u}d.$) A beaver. Ujárnu, v.t. re. To ruin, to destroy; f. -í, pl. -é. Uikáwnu, v.t. re. To startle; f. -i, pl. -é. Ujknu, v.i. re. To be startled; f. -i, pl. -é. Ujr, n.m. Objection. -karná, v.i. ir. To object. Ujr, ad. Uncultivated, unsown. Ujránu, v.t. re. To cause or allow to ruin; f. -i, pl. -é. Ujrnu, v.i. re. To be ruined; /. -i, pl. -é. Ukhal, n.m. See Okhal. Ukhárnu, v.t. re. (H. ukhárna.) To root up; f. -1, pl. -6. Ukhri-jánu, v.i. ir. To get rooted up; f.-í, pl.-é. Ukhrnu, v.i. rc. To be rooted up; f. -1, pl. -é. Ulú, n.m. (H. ullú) An owl. Umí, n.f. Wheat, roasted as a food. -bhujni, v.i. re. To roast wheat. Umr, n.f. (umar.) Age. -bitni, v.i. re. To pass, a period Umró-khé, adv. For life. Un, n./. Wool. -kátni, v.i. re. To spin wool. Undá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Down. Undká, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. é. Downwards. Undlá, -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Of below, lower. Uni, ad. Of wool. Upái, upáw, n./. and m. Treatment, a remedy. -karná, v.i. ir. To treat. Upán-ni, v.t. re. To create. Upáw, n.m. Sec Upái. Upr, ad. Up. bol-karná, v.i. ir. To make one prosperous. Urn, ad. m. (S. Anrini.) Free from obligation. -honu, v.i. ir. To be free from obligation. Urn-karná, v.i. ir. To set free from one's obligation. Ut, n.m. (H. úňt.) A camel. Ut, ad. Ignorant, foolish. Utarm, v.i. re. To desend, to come down; f. -i, pl. -é. U é, adv. Down. (Balsan, Jubbal, Púnar, and Ráňwíň.) Uté, -bilé, adv. Downwards. (Balsan, Jubbal, Púnar Ráňwíň.)

Utká, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Upset, reverse. Utrái, n.t. (H. utarái.) Down-hill, a descent. Syn. dhwáli.

Utlu. -á, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Not very deep.

Proverb:—Halai utlu, Móié gádu.

"Not very deep with a plough, But very deep with a smoothing plough.

(To express inconsistency.)

ľwábái, n.f. Nonsense. -honí, v.i. ir. To become nonsense.

W

Wáňdá, or -u, ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. Hither, this side.

Wándká, -u. ad. m.; f. -í, pl. -é. To this side.

Wándla, -u, ad. m.; f. -i, pl. -é. Of this side.

Wang, n.f. A plant (Achyranthes aspera). Its ashes are used in washing linen.

Wáňjnu, v.t. re. To mutter charms and wave a plant over a patient to cure him.

Wáňs, wáňsi, n.f. (S. Amávásyá.) The day of conjunction or new moon:

Wáňsi, n./. (S. Amávásyá.) See the preceding.

War, adv. This side. -par. adv. To this and that side.

Wár, n.m. A fence. -dená, v.i. re. To fence, to enclose.

Wárdá, n.m. or wár-rá, n.m. A custom of waving some money over the head of a chief and giving it to his servants. This custom is generally observed when two chiefs meet together.

Wárnu, v.t. rc. To enclose, to fence; f. -i, pl. -é.

Wárshi, n.f. Hereditary estate.

Waruwnu, v.i. re. To be fenced or enclosed; f. -i, pl. -é.

Wásá, n.m. A sleeping room. -é-khé-dewnu, v.i. re. To go to sleep.

Wásni, n.f. (1) The ceremony observed on a bride's entering her husband's house. (S. Vadhúpravésha.) (2) The consecration of a house. (S. Grihapratisthá.)

Wáz, n.f. (H. áwáz.) Sound. -honi, v.i. ir. To sound.

Wazír, n.m. (P.) A minister, a prime-minister. -an. n.f. The wife of a minister.

Waziri, n.m. A wazir or collector of revenue subordinate to the shrí wazír or chautará wazír or chief minister. (Kullú and n.f. Basháhr). Ministry.

Y

Yád, n.f. Memory. -áwni, v.t. re. To remember. -karni, v.t. ir. To remember, to recollect.

Yár, n.m. A friend. -honá, v.i. ir. To be friendly. Syn. A'r.

 \mathbf{Z}

Zaind, ad. m. and f. Dumb, foolish, ignorant.
Zakát, n.f. (P. zagát.) An octroi tax. (Kuthár and Basháhr.)
Zarbó, n.m. pl. (P. zarb.). Trouble, pain.
Zwád, n.m. Existence, living. (Fr. Ziňdagí).

APPENDIX.

(1) FOLK-LORE.

The fourteenth day of the dark half of the month of Bhádo and the next day of conjunction are called "Dagyálí kí rát." It is a general belief in the hills that on these two days dágs, or witches, who know magic, wander by night and devour any beautiful thing that comes before their sight. To avert this danger, the Díňwaň or a Bráhman gives the people either some rice or some mustard seed, pronouncing the following chant or mañtar:—

Rakkh Rám, rakkh déb, rakkh shísh, rakkh Mhésh, rakkh paun, rakkh pání, rakkh dayá, rakkh chhabháy, rakkh rakkh banáshtete, rakkh dewá, Klainuwáň, terí rkhaurí, dewá Sípá, dewá Shráliyá, dewá Korganá, dewá Dháňdiyá, debié, jáň-uň ná súké sát samuňd, táň-uň ná chúkai merí rkhaurí, Brahmání muňdró, háre dwáre, rachhá karai, jimí bhúmí rachhá karai, kheché khlainé rachhá karai, pashú basetrí, rachhá karai, máú dhíné rachhá karai, bále bholé rí rachhá karai, thaur thái di rachhá karai, sarb rachhá karai, dági bhúto khe lohé rá bár bánai, wáňsí chaudashí lohé rá bár bánai, dágí bhútó sátwe ptálai gálai, rakkh dewá Sípá Klainuwáň, Shráliyá, Dháňdiyá, Korganá, debié, sarb rachhá karai.

Translation.

Protect O Rám, protect O God, protect O Vishnú, protect O Shib, protect O wind, protect O waters, protect O tenderness, protect from fear, protect, protect O all you the plants, protect. protect O deity Klainu, you are the protector, O Sip deity, O Shrálí deity, O Korgan deity, O goddess, protect, as long as the water of the seven oceans is not dried, so long the protection uttered by me will not fail; the protection of Brahmá may protect house, door, land, earth, the crops, the farmyard, the cattle and their herds, the bees, the milk-store, the simpleminded children, the rooms and the places, this protection may prepare an iron cage for the bitches and ghosts, and for this conjunction day and for the fourteenth day of dark Bhado, an iron fence may be prepared and the bitches and ghosts may be sent down in it to the seventh lower regions to be destroyed there, protect O Shrálí deity, O Klainu deity, O Síp deity, O Dhándí deity, O Korgan deity O Goddess, protect all things well.

THE TALE OF A JACKAL AND A TIGER.

O re Chán-mán-níe, Ká boló ji maháráj ? Sáto sío rój kháú thié, Ekí síé ká karí áj ?

- 'O you Chán-mán-ní!'
- 'What do you say, my Lord?'
- 'We used to breakfast on seven tigers, What are we to do to-day with only one?'

The tale runs thus:—In a forest there lived a pair of jackals. One day a tiger happened to arrive near their den. Seeing the danger approach, the jackal exclaimed to his wife:—"O you Chán-mán-ní!" The wife replied, "What do you say, my Lord?" The jackal said: "We were breakfasting every day on seven tigers, what shall we do to-day with only one?" Thereupon the tiger being greatly afraid of the jackals, ran for his life.

(2) PROVERBS.

- (1) Appé kuri ghar ná bashdī, Horánú sikh dashdi.
 - "The girl does not live at her husband's, But she gives hints to other women." (To show negligence on one's own part.)
- (2) Ārá, biyá lará, Ārá, jáú ná kindé.
 - "Friend, you fought very well!"
 - "O friend, I couldn't escape!"

The story goes that once a musician (túri) used to go every evening to the temple at Koti village. One evening when returning to his home, a bear caught him. As he was a strong man, he struck the beast a blow with his pole on its nose, and it ran away. A man who happened to witness the fight said "Friend, you fought very well." He replied, "Friend, I couldn't escape."

(Used when one is compelled to do any thing by force.)

- (3) Dhanu raí já tau parj taňyíň bí lágo.
 - "If the bow is all right, the string can be strung again."

(Used when one's offspring or wife is dead.)

- (4) Tăň ná chet<u>ai</u> áňdhá, Jáň shir ná lagai káňdhá.
 - "A blind man will not know,
 Till his head hits against the wall."
 - (A Káňgrá proverb.)

(5) Sháré suki, ná Sáwné hari.

"Neither dry in June nor green in July."
(Used when a thing is in the same manner as before.)

(6) Jú nashé khuló tiňdé dáňd ná láné.

"To that which may be opened by a nail, no tooth should be applied."

(A thing which can be easily done, should not be done with much pains.)

(7) O'j práune rá, Bhój perė rá.

"A guest's excuse,
And a feast of sweetmeat (perá)."

(When a guest comes to one's house the whole family gets a good dinner.)

- (8) Háchhu khánu, buru bolnu, Kadí ní bhuldú.
 - "Tasteful food and a bad speech Are never out of the memory."
- (9) Háchhá káprá hátí dá báhar ní nikldá.
 - "Fine cloth never goes out of the shop (for sale)."
 (A well-to-do man is liked and visited by everybody.)
- (10) Ká jáno Pahárí bhuňdu, Je kishe khái krundu, Ká jáno Deshí jpór, Je kishe khái khór.
 - "What do the Pahárí fools know
 As to how the fruit of the krundá plant is to be eaten?
 What do the fools of the plains know
 As to how walnuts should be eaten?"

(A jest between a man from the plains and a hillman).

(11) Kháilu tau kháilu par ghútilu ká?

"In eating they will eat, but how will they swallow?"
(Said when one is unable to swallow anything on account of a sore throat.)

- (12) Je meru-jyó-shundá, Tau pálu-jyo ná pundá.
 - "If you were to listen to me, You would not have done it in that manner."
- (13) Dháro re gh<u>au't</u> a, Je pishóle ná t<u>au</u> dhishóle t<u>au</u>.
 - "These stone-mills are on a ridge, Though unfit to grind, they can be seen from afar."

- (14) Bilkhí ru ghyú a bai, Máň bhái sukiéí.
 - "'Tis Bilkhi's butter,
 I like the bread without it."
- (15) Je ág ná ján<u>ai</u> thi, Tau tauwá bí ná jánai thi?
 - "If you did not know how to kindle the fire,
 Then did you also not know how to bring the pan?"
- (16) Aj nipútí kál nipútí, Késar fúlá sadá nipútí.
 - "To-day and to-morrow she is without a son, She is without a son even when the saffron blooms." (Used as of a childless woman, to show impossibility.)
- (17) Táte khe karchhí, Shale khe háth.
 - "A spoon for the hot,
 And the hand for the cold."
- (18) Je déo-jyá huňdá, Tau mano ri bujhdá.
 - "If I were like a deity,
 I would know everyone's mind."
- (19) Jasrá báo sí hó, Sé báj dalkíe kw<u>ai</u> khá?
 - "He, whose father is a lion, why Will he eat without flesh?"

(One who has good supporters will always be successful).

- (20) Ju merí m<u>ai</u>wó nílá, Sé máň bí dhácholá.
 - "He, who takes away my mother, Will have to support me too."

(Used of a widow's child when its mother takes another husband, and meaning that he who ploughs the land will have to pay the taxes.)

- (21) Galau taňyíň Gángá, Tethia porkí jimpr.
 - "When bathing, up to one's throat it is the Ganges, But above the throat it is death itself."

(One cannot do what is beyond his power.)

(22) Je paņmesur dekhá ní, Tau kadurtí fa tau pachhyánu a.

> "Even if no one has seen God, He can still be recognized by His nature."

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 - (23) Sambie dwár, basharmo ru múňh, kuchh ni huňdu.
 - "A lower door and the face of a shameless man are good for nothing."
 - (24) Kargánú ¹ báňdí Ráje rá, Káti-ro maró máwí.
 - "The Rája's village of Kargánú was divided, And the Máwís died after fighting for it." (Used when any one interferes in another's case.)
 - (25) Biná japne fa hásnu, E bi fjíterái kám a.
 - "To laugh without speaking Is a disgraceful act."
 - (26) Es hásne ja ronui bhalú.
 - "Better weeping than such a laughter."
 - (27) Dúd kháu kw<u>ai</u>ň ní jándá, Br<u>ai</u>l gháu jan<u>au</u> sab<u>ai</u>.
 - "No one knows that the milk was eaten.
 But every one knows that the cat has been killed."
 - (28) Je máň lági a táti tau kyaiň ni karuwa, Luňd márí ishéí.
 - "If I am in trouble, nothing can be done, But wicked people are so pullished (as I)."
 - (29) Chhewri ru sáth, bhedó ri basát, Kuchh ni hundí "
 - "The company of a woman and a flock of sheep Are good for nothing."
 - (30) Biná lúno ru ólan, biná chhewrí ru gh<u>au</u>r bi, Kuchh ní hundu.
 - "Cooked pulse or vegetables without salt, and a house without a woman, are good for nothing."
 - (31) Shánd mundau garau, Dúnne bánne rirau,
 - "The barren cow butts,
 While the milch-cow and oxen fall down dead."

(Used, when a valuable thing is lost while an unfruitful thing remains.)

¹ A village in Sirmur state on the banks of the Giri river.

- (32) Je mwéhru jap<u>au</u>, Tau diňwáň kwai púchhi
 - "If the idol were to speak,
 Then why should the dinwin be asked?"
- (33) Túrí ri dai hor bhedó ri bhai, Kadí ní jáňdi.
 - "The begging of musicians, and the bleating of a sheep, Never cease."
- (34) Shánd mhains napar bhátí bi, Kuchh ní hundá.
 - "A barren buffalo and an uneducated bráhman Are both good for nothing."
- (35) Mere tau túrí rá banái guwá, Je deňdá ní kyaiň tau orá tau chhár.
 - "My case is like the bear's that met a musician, who was caught by him, and said to him:—
 "If you will not give me anything then please leave."

me.̈, ,,

(Used when one wants to get rid of a danger at any cost.)

- (36) Mere tau Páwlú ri karhái hoí, Ju láiro bí múkí tau kháiro bí.
 - "My case has become like the vessel of Páwlú, Which was lost after being used only once."

(Used when one has lost a thing after using it once only.)

- (37) Jaa parau kál kabaríyá, Taa Pajau Āinu rau Sariyá.
 - "When there is a famine year, Then there are good crops in Ainu and Sariyá." (Villages of Koti State.)
- (38) Shyáli pái mundro, Mándré baná siddh.
 - "He became a mendicant at Shyálí village, And then became a miracle-monger at Mándr." (Villages in Bhajjí State.)

(Used to ridicule a mendicant.)

- (39) Tít<u>au</u> ru shu-ni t<u>au</u>, Tumrei tumrė biji.
 - "If we were to listen the mendicant, Then we ought merely to sow the gourd-fruit."

(The gourd-fruit is used for a water-pot by Oriental mendicants.)

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(40) Liňdé baldau, Tháro byádhí.

> "To an ox without a tail There are 18 diseases."

(Used when one is constantly in trouble.)

(41) Dháno re gáoň, Prálo fa jánu a.

"The villages in which rice grows Are known by its straw."

(42) Dóe re múňdo di pajlau, Tau áge ápni bdhaiwni.

"If fire burns on the head of both, Then one ought first to extinguish one's own." (To denote one's bad luck.)

(43) Dalki je shari, Tau shago ja ni pari.

> "If flesh is rot, Then it is better than a vegetable."

(44) Fátu thá'l, Páthé bróbar.

"A broken dish is equal to a páthá."

(A great thing if worn out is superior to a small thing, or great men even in misery have lofty thoughts).

(45) Chau thiňdé derá, Eksai chhewríé basérá.

"The place where four men live is a lodging house,
The place where a woman lives is a home."

(It shows that a house without a woman is nothing).

(46) Dháro páňde sátu k**u**n púno?

"Who will make roasted flour float on a ridge?"

(47) Jaa paró k/é'r, taa ná páni lé'r; Jaa á gé'r, taa ná lání bé'r.

"When there is any difficulty, one ought not to cry; When there's an opportunity, there should be no delay."

(48) Jaa din á báňgé, Taa tuňdá máro dáňgé.

> "When days are unlucky, Even a handless man will fight with a stick."

(49) Maňgal dewá míne, Sát patál guwé siné.

"When Mars goes into Pisces,
The seven lower regions become wet."
(Much rain is to be expected on Mars going into Pisces.)

(A)

- (50) Jaa thi nawé neché, Bámno kháú thi sheró re kheché; Jaa howí budhé práné: Báman khá' máň shero re dáné.
 - "When I was a young maid, I enjoyed Brahmans in a mustard field; Now that I am an old woman: Brahmans console me with mustard seed."

(It means that when she was young, Brahmans used to prefer requests to her; but when she became old, she was obliged to beg of Brahmans.)

- (51) Hyúň ghalo-lá bádlié soená ghalo suhágé, Thiňd ghalo báňthyá, kánjrí ráňdí ágé
 - "The snow will melt with clouds, and gold with borax,
 And so will a handsome young man with a harlot."
- (52) Doň bi lágá páṇi bi lágá, Sio brágo rá byáh bi lágá.
 - "The sun is shining and the rain a-falling,
 The tiger and the leopard's wedding is being celebrated." (Of an extraordinary thing.)
- (53) Také ri, bi, Chaja ri bi.
 - "Costing six pies,
 And yet of good quality!"
 (A thing bought for six pies cannot be of good quality.)
- (54) Sákho ri mauňsí, Saudé ri karairi.
 - "The mother's sister in relation, But very strict in a bargain."
- (55) Dukhné chót, Kanaudé suhet.
 - "A hurtful limb is often hurt,
 And he is often seen, who is disliked."
- (56) Shíngó ja chhárné poré, Punjro de dené pacháké.
 - "It is unwise to let go the horns
 And catch hold of the tail (of a bull)."
- (57) Karjo ri jimí, thán dé pání rá nhán, jeth kethí fábo.
 - "Land on tax, and a bath of cold water, can be obtained everywhere."

(58) Ráňd sáňd hor mhaiňsá arnú, Jaa bigró taa kishu karnú.

"When a widow, an ox, and a wild buffalo Are in a rage, what's to be done then?" (It means that these three are uncontrollable.)

(59) Jethai gholi, Tethai pyúňli.

> "Wherever mixed with water, There's the golden colour."

(It means that a diligent man will gain everywhere.)

(60) ¹ Réog bi chhwáná, Taa Ţáňdá bi náchá.

> "When the sun set from Réog peak, Then Tandá began his dance."

(Of an unsuitable time in any business.)

(61) Budh báníáň Shukr káná, Shanchar bolo áň pari nháná.

> "Wednesday is a usurer, and Friday has only one eye, But Saturn says he must bathe."

(There is no hope of rain on Wednesday or Friday, but Saturday must bring rain.)

(62) Luku luku pashņu, Taa práwņe ágé deņu.

> "She prepares a dish privately, Then puts it before a guest."

(63) Khání píní Shilrué,
Bhukhe marí Káňdié;
Cháw tamáshá Dhanoné:
Gothi láyi Dhánié.

"Shilrú is good for eating and drinking, There is hunger in Káňdí; Dhanon contains pleasure and pastimes: Complaints are made in Dhání."

(The lands in Shilrú and Dhanón are very fertile, and those of Kándí and Dhání are good for nothing. These four villages are in Kotí State.)

(64) Dhakí múth lákhó ri, Khulí múth kakhó ri.

> "A closed fist may hold a million, And an open one, a straw."

¹ Tándá was a zamindár of Bhajjí, and Reog is the name of a peak.

- (65) Jaa ukhlo dú múňd chhárnu, Taa chóto khe ká darnu?
 - "When one puts one's head in a mortar, What's the fear of hurt?"
- (66) Bádlí páki bhalkó, Páni ri lági shalkó; Bádlí páki byálai. Pání ná nhyálai.
 - "When clouds become red at morn, Then there will be a heavy shower of rain; When clouds become red in the evening, Then you need not wait for rain."
- (67) Ju nháňdé muchau, Múňhoň páňdé japau jhuth, Tesru ká pákri ?
 - "How can he who makes water in his bath, And tells a lie face to face, be detected?"
- (68) Ná pêt shashné deú, Ná poré nashné deú.
 - "I'll neither let you massage my belly, Nor allow you to go away."

(The saying of a pregnant woman to her nurse. Used when one rejects each alternative).

- (69) Jishé gurú, Tishé chelé.
 - "As is the spiritual guide, So are his disciples."
- (70) Jetnu khátan hó, Tetni tádni.
 - "One ought to stretch (one's legs), According to one's means."
- (71) Jishá désh, Tishá bhésh.
 - "As may be the country, So should be the fashion (of one's dress)."

(In a warm country cotton clothing, and in a cold country woollen, is suitable.)

- (72) Lát<u>ai</u> ghá'ní máchhlí, Múňhéň bhajnu Rám.
 - "He kills fish with his feet,
 And performs Divine Service with his mouth."
 (Used when one differs in words and deeds.)

Agle re lá't ká a ? (73)Ju páchhlé ri fini.

> "The former's feet are not so ugly As the latter's ankles."

(Used when both of two things are defective.)

(74) Sabí tá bhalí chup.

"Silence is better than all (things)." (The silent man keeps aloof from all squabbles.)

(75)Kodá bi khiňdá. Taa pádá bi forá.

> "He has not only scattered the grain, But has also hurt his buttocks.'

(Used when one commits two mistakes at a time.)

Halai utlu, Móié gádu.

> " Not very deep with a plough, But very deep with a smoothing-plough." (Used to express inconsistent things.)

Sárí rátí gáu bajáu, (77)Bhyání khe duňds jáu.

"The whole night was spent in singing to music, There was a dead feetus at daybreak." (After working hard, the result was fruitless.)

(78) Múňhoň dekhí ro tíká láná.

"The gift called tiká should be according to one's dignity."

(79) Chhote muňhéň, Bare jabáb.

"The mouth small, But the reply great."

(One ought to speak according to one's ability.)

(80) Máň khe khaní kú, Tiňdá páí tú.

" A well was dug for me, But you are cast in it." (Used when a complainant is found to be guilty.)

(81) Shátho rí díňglí, Ekí rá bhárá.

> "Sixty persons' sticks Make a man's load."

(Trifling things, when gathered together, are of great use.)

- (62) Idh un appl ni mari, Tah-un surgé ni tari.
 - "So long as one is not dead,
 One can't go to heaven."
 (One's business should be done by oneself.)
- (83) Páp kapút apnéi khá.
 - "Sin and a wicked son will injure one's own interests."
- (84) Jas ri Sáwant játó, Tes ja' harui dhishó.
 - "He, whose eyes go in July, Sees green everywhere."
- (85) Shárê múin sháshu, Sáwanê âyê áshu.
 - "Her mother in law died in June, But she weeps for her in July."
 - (Of an improper time for a business.)
- (86) Khá' pía' astáj, Gunjó bhari japóro rí.
- "A clever man eats and drinks, But a fool's moustache is detected." (Used when the oulprit escapes, while an innocent man is punished.)
 - (87) Snáro ri thanak thanak, Lhwáro ri ekkai.
 - "The goldsmith's many taps
 Are equal to an ironsmith's single stroke."
 (Many small things are equal to one large one.)
 - (88) Sau múshé kháia, br<u>xil</u>i Gáňgá-khé cháli.
 - "Having devoured a hundred mice, The cat goes to the sacred place (Ganges)," (Used when a sinful man does a virtuous act.)
 - (89) Meri shashuwó pith, Teré shashuwó háth.
 - "My back may be oiled, As well as your hands." (Used when both parties are interested in a transaction.)
 - (90) Likhí kamáié lágu dhól, Jetné uthá ubhá tetne lágu hór.
 - "By an accident a rolling stone struck me,
 As I got up there came down another to hit me."
 (Used when one gets many troubles at a time.)

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- (91) Ek shánkh,
- Dujá khíró rá bhará.
 - "In the first place, a conch-shell; Secondly, full of rice boiled in milk." (Used when one is interested in both ways.)
- (92) Lid khání tá háthí rí, Janié pet tau bharuwo.
 - "If dung is to be eaten, then eat that of an elephant, Wherewith the belly may be filled."
- (93) Juthu khánu t<u>au,</u> Mithé re lobhai.
 - "Refuse food is eaten
 For the sake of its sweetness."
- (94) Bethá náwí, Kukró shauló.
 - "An idle barber Shaves a dog."

(Something is better than nothing.)

- (95) Swádó fá' túweň khoú, Bádó fa' múweň khoú.
 - "You've spoiled the taste,
 I'll spoil the blame."

(Used when a thing is spoiled in two way

- (96) Thodé rá khế l, Piplí rá masálá, Kuchh ní hundá.
 - "The practice of archery,
 And the spice of red pepper,
 Are no good at all."
 (Used when a nuisance of any thing occurs.)
- (97) Chámbé múlé, Bhekhlai jámí.
 - "Under a fragrant tree There grew a thorny plant."

(Used when a well-to-do man has an ignorant son.)

- (98) Lundó japdé, Kukró muchdé, Bé'r ní pardí.
 - "A debauchee in speaking, And a dog in making water. Make no delay."

(99) Kándé re múnh, Agel painé hó.

"The point of a thorn Is itself sharp."

(100) Rání khe nángí kun boló?

"Who can say that the queen has no robes?"

(101) Jetí kukrá ní huňdá, Tetí ká rát ní bhyaiwó.

"Where there is no cock,
Does not the day break there?"
(Used when a thing can be done without one's help.)

(102) Fá't bairí rá bí saráhná.

"A shrewd stroke of an enemy's is worthy of praise."

(103) Chulí fa' niklá, Bhátí dá pará.

> "Came out of a stove, Fell into a large oven" (Out of the frying-pan, etc.)

(104) Parái pithi de nagáre.

"Kettledrums on another's back."
(Used when one is suffering and another happy.)

(105) Ná gha<u>tai</u> dewá, Ná ráksh<u>ai</u> chha<u>l</u>á.

> "I neither went to the grinding stone (in a river), Nor was I terrified there by a ghost." (Used when one is safe from a danger.)

(106) Khashó lágí tátí, chál bhátả rátí; Khasho howá rám, bháto rá ní kyéň kám.

> "When a Khash was in need, he said: 'Go on, Brāhman, by night.' When the Khash got well, he said 'There is no use in

a Brahman."

(The Khash sept of Kanets is of selfish character.)

(107) Bol ketí thiá f Bolo Dillí: Bolo ká kar<u>ai</u> thíá f Bolo bhár jhokú thiá.

"'Say, where have you been?'
He replied that he was at Delhi.
What were you doing there?'

He replied that he was making a fire for parching grain."

(Of negligence in a man.)

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(108) Jetnu gharó fa' panhair hó, Tetnúl panhair fa' ghar hó.

> "As far as is the water-place from the house, So far is the house from the water-place." (It shows the equality of two things.)

(109) Mauté re théň' re inré.,

"The food at an officer's house is tasteful." (It shows superiority.)

(110) Jasrá báo sí, Sé kwai daró?

"He, whose father is a lion, Why should he fear?"

(A lion's young one has no fear.)

(111) Sáppó-re kháé-khe, dinguli-rá daur.

"He who was bitten by a snake, fears even a stick."

* (112) Bólau keti thiá? Bolau surgé, Ká karai thiá? Tálli láu-thá.

"Where have you been?—'I was in paradise."
"What were you doing there?'—'I was mending my clothes.""

(To denote ignorance.)

(113) Elau kiliá é lau shári, Meri ján dé árá chhári.

> "Take this basket and take these apricots, But be pleased, my friend, to spare my life." (One who is in great distress.)

(114) Mered jhuň eá, kaniéňg jalá, áň kadí bhík bi ná deú-thi i Bolau, ráňdíé, séi fal tau lágé.

"'O my beloved property, how did you burn! I never used to give even alms. They replied, 'O widow! that is the reason for burning your property.''

(Tit for tat.)

(115) Teré baldó-re t<u>au</u> lámbé shíng a' Ránd bi inién í kinyin u.

"'Oh! your ox has long horns."

Yes, but I was widowed by them."

(A good thing which causes injury.)

(116) Dárié, háthi-re dáňd a' é, Dekhné-ré horó, ohápné-ré horó.

"Oh my dear! These are the elephant's teeth,
One lot to be looked at and the others to chew with."

(One whose words differ from his deeds.)

- (117) Reké-ri fátó t<u>au</u> thaguwé chanyin, Jaa fátó ápni t<u>au</u> ká karí?
 - "One ought to take warning, from seeing another's eyes hurt,

What's to be done when one's own are injured? "

(Of precautions against danger.)

- (118) Príunó-rá bhári kanau ná thanau, Ghato-rá bhári dewau lámbí lérau.
 - "One who has his sieve full will not groan,
 But he who has to go to the mill will weep over his
 heavy load."

(When one is happy and another not.)

- (119) Gharchi rau múňhtá ápnái dashná hó.
 - "One has to show one's own property and one's own face."
- (120) Dekh ráňdo-rá chálá, Shir náňgá múňh kálá.
 - "See the widow's trick, Bare head and black face."
- (121) Háňd-dé karau chhwáyá, Bethi-ró ní chhwáyá chaňyiň.
 - "It does not matter if the sun sets on its way, But it ought not to set while sitting still." (One ought not to be idle.)
- (122) Shil-báňki góriyá, p<u>au</u>n-bánki ghoriyá, Marjád-báňká mard, dúd-báňki gaú.
 - "She who is chaste is pretty, that is a horse which is swift,

He is a man whose conduct is good, and a good cow is that which gives much milk."

(Handsome is that handsome does.)

- (123) Merí ghín ná karai tau meré skaňd karai.
 "If you do not love me, I give you an oath."
 (Love requires no oath.)
- (124) Láia-ri ghín rau láiari dárí ní hundi.
 - "One-sided love and a ragged beard are good for nothing."
 (Unrequited love is a disgrace.)
- (125) Ká káku ká kákuru pét, Sári háňdi-áyá Máňdi rau Sukét.
 - "What a little thing a tinder box is!
 Yet it has been all through Mandi and Suket."
 (Of one who does a lot of work.)

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(126) Chiso-dá páthar páyá, taa thálé-khe dewari.

"If a stone is thrown into the water it sinks to the bottom."

(A weighty word attracts attention.)

(127) Bashkál kitnái bashau pláh-dé chauní pách.

"It does not master whether there is a heavy monsoon or a light one, the tree (Butea frondosa) always has no more than three leaves."

(One who is just the same whether in comfort or adver-

sity.

(128) Ek ákkh tiňdi bi dwáňj.

"He has only one eye, and in that too there is pain." (Trouble upon trouble.)

Note.—Most of these were furnished by Babu Shib Datt Mahta and Tara Datt Parchit of Koti State.

PAHARI RIDDLES.

- (1) Chár chiri charmakan-lági, Dó khari dó nánchan-lági.
 - "Four birds began to sing, Two stand and two dance."

Reply: a cow's udder.

(2) U'pr bé'l bhúiň tháňwlá, Má gorí put sáňwlá.

"A creeper above and a basin below, The mother white and the son black."

Reply: Mugoh (an edible root.)

(3) Poró áwi ráňd, Táň-khe lyái kolthó-ri fáňd.

"There came a widow,
And she brought you a bundle of pulse."

Reply: a snail.

(4) Lau jhiri lashkar chálau, Néol ghúmau, parbat hálau.

"If the creeper is pulled an army seems to be marching, The lowland rises up and the hill shakes."

Reply: a hand-loom.

(5) Dúňgí dábr daniyar karau, Mánkú mámá báuwé tarau.

"A deep pond resounds, And uncle Mankú swims."

Reply: a frog.

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(6) Wár zhhláká pár chhláká, Máňjh nálié jamtu páká.

> One wave hither and another thither, In the centre of a ravine a citron is ripe."

> > Reply: the churning of curd.

(7) Poró dui rúi, Mund goi pehrúi.

> "There came the cotton, And hurt the head with its nails."

Reply: a comb.

(8) Nhyári náli si garláná, Pánj jané dewé pákr-dé dúié áná.

"In a dark ravine a lion roared,
Five men went to catch him but two brought him out."

Reply: mucus.

(9) Poro áwu kuktu lujbude kán, Máň ná khai kuktuwá áň terá jajmán.

"There came a pup with quivering ears, Don't bite me, O pup, I am your customer."

Reply: Forget-me-not.

(10) Bjhyaini láu bjhaini láu bujh bujhaíyá-bírá, Eksai dalié chaun jal lágé, híng, jwain rau jírá.

"O you, that understand a puzzle, I tell you a riddle, On one plant there are three fruits, viz., as assafoetida, carroway and cummin."

Reply: a large kitchen spoon.

(11) Harr kar<u>au</u> jharr kar<u>au</u> chuňj kar<u>au</u> chash, Chár sapáí taa chál<u>au</u> jaa kamr kar<u>au</u> kash.

> "They quiver and shake with a bird-like noise, The four peons will go on when they have girt up their loins."

Reply: a palanquin or a spinning wheel (charkha).

(12) Bhiti-dá taká, sabí-rá saká.

"It sits on the wall, And is friend of all."

Reply: a lamp

¹ It should be noted that the hillmen churn the curd in an earther pot, shaking it by one hand hither and thither until the butter is gathered like a ball.

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(13) Poró dvoá chělu chámbá, Api hochhká dárkú lámbá.

"One is come there.

He himself is small but has a long beard."

Reply: an ear of bariey.

Note.—Most of these were furnished by Mahté Kashi Ram of Shilru village of Koti State.

(14) Káterié kátu ná, ná dhobié dhoú, Ból merié pyárié, sárí prithí khe cholu hoú.

"Neither has a spinner spun it, nor has a washer washed it,
Say, my dear, what is it that makes a cloak for the whole world?"

Reply: the snow.

THE SONG OF THE BLA'J FAIR SUNG IN BLA'J.

Pahlá náňw Náráyano rá, junieň dhartí puání, Jaláthalí hoí pirthibí, debí Mansá rákhí jagálí. Mánu ná holé kweň rikhí, ek<u>ai</u> Náráyan rájá holá, Siddh gurú rí jholí fa, dháí dáná sheró rá jhará.

5. Dhás dáná sheró rá, mháré shvárié bíj<u>au,</u> Bíji báji ró sheró, jámadé lá-gé, Jámi ró sheró, god-né láyé, Godi ró sheró, pákadé lágé, Páki lúni ró sheró, kunuweň láyé.

10. Gáhí máňdí ró, kyá hová pvájá ? Dháí dánd bíjau rá, chhurú hová pvájá. Ohhurú bharí sheró rá, mháré bíjau shváré, Bíjí ró sheró, jámadé lágé, Jámí ró sheró, godané láyé,

15. Godi ró sheró, pákadé lágé, Páki lúni ró sheró, kunuweň láyé. Gáhi máňdi ró sheró, byá howá pwájá? Ohhurú bhari bijau rá, páthá howá pwájá. Páthá bhari sheró rá, mháré bijau shwáré.

Biji ró sheró, jámadé lágé,
 Jámi ró sheró, gödané lágé,
 Godi ró sheró, pákadé lágé,
 Páki láni ró sheró, kumuveň lágé.
 Gdějí máhál ró sheró, kyű hová pvájá?
 Páthá bharí sheró rá, jún hová pvájá.
 Ján bharí sherórá, mháré bíjan shvaré.

Bíjí ró sheró, jámadé lágé, Jámí ró sheró, gódané láyé, Godí ró sheró, pákadé lágé,

30. Pákí lúní ró sheró, kunuweň láyé.
Gáhí máňdí ró sheró, kyá howá pwájá?
Jún bharí bíj<u>av</u> rá, khár howá pwájá.
Khár bharí sheró rí, mháré bíj<u>av</u> Balgé sheri,
Bíjí ró sheró, jámadé lagé,

35. Jámí ró sheró, gódané láyé, Godi ró sheró, pákadé lágé, Pákí lúní ró sheró, kunuweň láyé. Gáhí maňdí ró sheró, kyá howá pwájá? Khár bharí bijau rá hoí kharshó púrá.

40. Khárshé shérshé bháiyó, mháré muňdar bánó, Siddh guruwé muňdar báná, Byáló ke pahré áyá ludró, byáló ke pahré, áyá ľudró, Jimí samánó, báné mudró, Chand ró surjó, báné mudró,

45. Táré re maňďaló, báné mudró, Bású re nágó, báné mudró, Sáte samudré, báné mudró, Chauró rau dhúró, báné mudró, Ríshi rau múní, báné mudró,

50. Kotí rí paulí, báné mudró, Ráná Raghbír Chandó, báné mudró, Tíké dothányinyen, báné mudró, Berê rau báné, báné mudró, Deó Klainú, báné mudró,

55. Deó Sharálí, báné mudró, Deó rau Sipó, báné mudró, Deo rau Dhándí, báné mudró, Deó Korganó, báné mudró, Deó rau debí, báné mudró,

60. Cháklú ri chhaurí, báné mudró, Es Barlájó, báné mudró. Manó dí upjé debí Mansá, Tú hí debié ruwé jagátí, Sát kalash, Náráyané ditté, rákhané khé,

65. 'Inó debié, rákhai bhdáré,' Báró barshó khé, suté Náráyan jaló-biché, 'Tú debié, ruwé jagálí, Nau mhíné kalashó rákhé bhdáré, Mhíné dasweň forné láné,'

70. Ek kalah forá debié, Brahmá paidá howó;
'Táň tó bolú Brahmeyáň, merá dená byáhrú karí.'
'Charjó ná bolai, mátá debié,
Tú sát jugó ri, dharmó rí mátá.'
Kródh upiá debi dá, karó Brahme rá bhasmá táló.

75. Dújá kalash forá debié, Vishnú pajdá kíňyá.

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'Táň bí bolú Vishnuwá, merá dená byáhrú karí.' 'Charj ná bol<u>ai</u>' mátá debié, sáto jugó rí dh**ormó rí mátá,** Kródh jo ugmáň debí dá, kar<u>av</u> Vishnú rá bhasmá táló. Chiyá kalash forá debiê, Mahddeb p<u>ai</u>dá howá,

80. 'Táň hí tó bolú Mahádebá, merá dená byáhrú karí.'
'Dharmó dé mátá debié, dó bháí jhángé mátá debié,
Tinó dé tú jyúňdé karí.'
Amrit chhitú báyá debié, Brahmá Vishnu khare kiňyé.
Brahmeň rau Vishnuweň debí ágé arjó kíňyí:

85. Byáhrú karumeň hatí ró, mháré lané ádmí pwánni. Tháró háthó rá kiñyá ádmí, tinó fa dhartí na chálí, Sawá háthó rá kiñyá ádmí, tinó fa dhartí ná chálí. Dujé saté luwé ádmí pwánní.

Chándí soená rá kínyá ádmí, náhí karó hunwaró káró, 80. Kánsé támbé rá kínyá ádmí, náhí karó hunwaró káró. Kámdeb rá kínyá ádmí, se bharo hunwaró káró,

Huňkáró ré jámá putró, ágé howá Niraňkáró. Niraňkáró ré howá putró, ágé howá Harí Chand rájá. Harí Chand rájé ré bakhté, sukh<u>ai</u> basó parjá sárí.

95. Harí Chand rájé ré pohré, brág holá bákrí rá jagálá. Harí Chand rájé ré pohré, billi holí dhinché rí jagálí. Harí Chand rájé ré pohré, músá holá naujó rá bhdárí. Harí Chandó ré pohré, gothu holá paulí rá jagálá, Harí Chandó ré jámá putar, ágé howá Balí Chand Rája.

100. Balí Chand Ráje ré bakhté, barí holí dhágdí lágí: 'Parhé ánau paňdató, mahló rá muhúrat dekhó.' Báro odí ráje paulí, báro rákhe póhru jagále. Páthré chiné rájé mahló, lohé ré cheoló banáwé, Káňsé támbé re kiňyéň jalté, cháňdí re chható charháwe.

105. Sóené ré kalshó kur-ró charháwé, khoré ánau Nárdó¹ shádí ró.

> Chau dhúre nyoňdá dena, rikhí muní sabí buláwné, Buláwné deoté horo cháró dhámó,² 'hori khe dená Nárdá nyoňdá,

> Dekhai Náráyan Rájá sunó.' Bámnó rá bhekh kiñya Náráyané,

> Ai-guwá Balí Chandó ré duwáré paulí ré jhoté baithá bámnó.

110. Ná an kháňad ná páni pindá. 'Kárjó sidháré merá bámná.

Dán deúmá muňhó rá máňgá. Dáno ré luwe dharmo bámné.

Lohé ri báli samidhá, pání rá díwtá jálá, Kárjó sidhárí ró báman, dánó mángdá lágá.

Nárdo, the Divine sage Nárada.
 Jagannáth-puri, Setbandh Rámeshwar, Dwarká, and Badrináth are called the Chár dháme.

270. Journal of the Aciatic Society of Bengal. [May, 1911.

Mángi ló Bámná rẻ đán, mángi ló **Bámná r**ể đán,

115. Jó tú mángai sé parmán, jó tú mángai sé parmán." Poriyá: 'ká Rájeá teré tautá jyá?'
'Tautá bolai ná Bámná! é punyá rá chandó.'

Poriyá: 'ká Rájeá teré jyowtá jyá!' 'Jyowtá bolai ná Bámná, é Bású rá nágó.

120. Máňgí ló bámná ré dán, máňgi bastó náhiňkár.'
Mahló dá: 'ka Rájeá teré, sóené rá jyá chothrú ?'
'Chothrú bolai ná Bámná, é a'mahló rá chható.'
'Kárjó sidhárá Rájeá terá, dáno khe badluwi guvá.
Dhái bíkh máň dhartí dení. Bhúlá Báman, máňgí ná jáná.

125. Chándí sóená Báman dán, ghorá bágá Báman dán,
Khárshé dendá tán badauwé, Balgó rí sér.'
Ek bikh dewó ádhé sansáré, dují bikh dewó sáré sansáré,
Adhí bikhó khe thenyá ná tháí, Balí Rájé kanrí dái.Gádá sátwé ptálé. Balí Rájá arjó karó: 'nánwá ná
merá gálé:

130. Dó dé Rájeá máň váňsí, dó dé paréví,'
'Etná dán Rájeá mere, dittá ní jáňdá,
Ek deúmá táň váňsí, ék deúmá paréví.'
'Awéli Diyáli ré kab<u>ai</u>?' 'Kátí ri váňsí ámí.'
'Kanié kanié ré lóbhé?' 'Chhewrí chhotu re lóbhé.

135. 'Awêli Diyali ré kabai?' 'Khoró márí ré lóbhé. Chajari chhewri ré lobhé, chajaré gábrú ré lobhé.'

This ends the Blaj Fair Song.

After this song, they sing a brief account of the Rámáyan, the adventures of Rájá Rám Chand, in the Pahárí language.

Then dramatic performances are displayed. First of all a gang of Bairágis (Vaishnavas) enter with their preceptor. His disciples serve him respectfully, but with comic sentences, which make the audience laugh. Then other pieces, such as a banker's or other person's drama, are performed during the whole night, and the people all disperse at daybreak. After taking some refreshment they again gather by the evening, when archery is practised, and the man who shoots under the knees of a running man, is praised. Turn and turn about they play with bows and arrows. This practice is called Khe'l. There is a proverb—

Dhanu ra khé'l, piplí ra masálá, kuchh ni hundá.

"The practice of archery, and spice of the chilli, are no good."

Translation of the Bla'j Song.

The first is the name of the Almighty God, who has created the earth,

¹ Rág Shyámkalyán, tái chhukrá, sung with music and dance.

Vol. VII. No. 5.] Appendix to the Dioy. of Pahari Dialette. 271 [N.S.]

> The whole earth was drowned in the water. Mansa Devi was kept as a guard.

> There were no men, no sages, only the Supreme God was king.

> From Siddh-guru's " wallet, there fell down two and a half grains of mustard.

The two and a half grains of mustard we should sow in a small field,

Having been sown the grain began to grow, When grown up, the mustard plants were weeded.

Being well weeded, they began to ripen,

Being ripen and cut, they were heaped at one place. 10. What was the produce after cleaning them in the farmyard? The seed was two and a half grains, the produce one One chhurú of grain we should sow in a small field. Having been sown, it began to grow,

Being grown up, the mustard plants were weeded,

Being well weeded, they began to ripen, Being ripen and cut, they were heaped at one place. What was the produce after winnowing them from the straw?

Of one chhurú of seed, the produce was one páthá.4 One páthá of mustard seed, we should sow in a field.

20. Having been sown, it began to grow up, Being grown up, the field was weeded, Being well weeded, it began to ripen, Being ripe and out, it was heaped at one place. What was the produce after winnowing it from the

25. The seed was one páthá, and the produce one jún. Now one jun of the seed, we should sow in a field, Being well sown, it began to grow, Being well grown up, the field was weeded, Being weeded, it began to ripe up,

Being ripe and cut, it was heaped at one place. What was the produce after winnowing it from the

Of the one jun of seed, the produce was one khár. One khár of seed we should sow in the large field of Balg.

Being sown, it began to grow up,

¹ Mansa Devi is the name of a goddess, who sprang from God's

⁸ Chhurú is=1} tola.

Biddh gurú was a devotee.
 Páthá is a grain measure equal to three seers.
 Jún, a grain measure equal to forty-eight seers. Khár, equal to 20 júns.

A village on the boundary of Balsan and Ghund Ste

35. Being grown up, the field was weeded, Being well weeded, the plants began to ripen, Being ripe and cut, it was heaped at one place. What was the produce after winnowing it from the straw ? The seed being one khár, the produce was one

khársh.

O brothers, with one khársh of mustard we must ask 40. protection. The Siddh-gurú offered protection,

And by evening time, there appeared Shib (Ludar), Who said: "The earth and the sky are hereby protected.

The sun and moon are hereby protected,

The region of constellations is hereby protected. 45. The nág Básukí is hereby protected, The seven seas are hereby protected, The courtyard and the four quarters are hereby pro-

The saints and sages are hereby protected,

50. The gate of the Koti State is hereby protected, The Ráná Raghubír Chand is hereby protected, The Heir Apparent and his brother are hereby protected. The palace and the boundary are hereby protected.

The village deity Klainú is hereby protected, The deity Shrálí (Jungá) is hereby protected, 55.

The deity Sip is hereby protected, The deity Dhándí is hereby protected, The deity Kórgan is hereby protected, Gods and goddesses are hereby protected,

The courtyard of Cháklú is hereby protected, 60. And lastly this Blá'j Fair is hereby protected." Mansá Deví sprang from God's mind, And God told her to guard the earth, God gave her seven earthen pots to keep, saying:-

"O goddess, keep them in the store-house." 65. God slept for twelve years in the ocean, and said: "O goddess, thou should'st guard them carefully, Keep them for nine months in the store-house, On the tenth month they must be broken."

One pot was broken by the goddess, and there appeared **70**. Brahmá:

¹ A khársh is equal to 20 khárs. * Chákļu is a place about two miles from Kiár, where the Blá'j Fair takes place on the full moon of Kartik.

"I tell thee, O Brahmá, be pleased to solamnize my

wedding.''

"O mother goddess, say not such a strange thing, Thou art my virtuous mother of the seven ages," said Brahmá,

The goddess being very angry, burnt him to ashes.

75. The second pot was broken by the goddess, and there appeared Vishnu:

"I tell thee, O Bishnu, pray perform my wedding,"

said the goddess.

"O goddess, say not such a strange thing, thou art my seven ages' virtuous mother, answered Vishnu,

The goddess being very indignant, burnt Vishnu to ashes.

The third pot was broken by her, and there appeared Mahadeb (Shib):

80. "I tell thee, O Mahadeb, be pleased to arrange for my wedding," said the goddess.

"Promise me, O goddess, thou that hast killed my two elder brothers."

Be pleased to restore them to life.

The goddess threw a drop of nectar, straightway arose Brahmá and Vishņu.

Brahmá and Vishnu besought the goddess:

85. "We will perform thy wedding after we have created men."

A man twenty-seven feet in height was created, but he did not suit the earth,

A man of two feet was created, but he did not suit the earth.

The next time they again created a man.

A man was created of gold and silver, but he did not suit the earth.

90. A man of bell-metal and copper was created, but he did not suit the earth.

A man of Cupid was created, who answered and was called Húňkár,

Húňkár got a son, who was termed Niraňkár.

Niraňkár got a son, who was called Hari Chand.

In the reign of Hari Chand all his subjects were very happy,

95. In his time, the leopard used to graze goats,
In his time the cat was the keeper of the milk-store,
In his time the mouse became the keeper of the grain-

store,

And, in his reign, the civet was perhaps the doorkeeper.

Hari Chand got a son, whose name was Rájá Bali Chand.

100. In the reign of Balf Chand, the earth was dazzling.

Bali Chand said:

"Ask learned pandits to find a lucky time to build a palace,"

Twelve gates were erected, and twelve persons appointed gatekeepers.

The palace was built of stone, and beams of iron fitted.

Its planks were of copper and bell-metal, and its roof was made of silver,

 Its uppermost roof was made of gold. Then he bade call Nárad,

Invitations were sent to the four quarters, saints and sages were summoned.

All the deities of the four dháms were invited. Then he said: "O Nárad, invite all,

But take care that Vishnu may not hear." Vishnu,

assuming the form of a dwarf, Arrives at the door of Bali Chand, and seats himself at the gate.

110. He neither takes food nor drinks water. Bali Chand saith, "O Bráhman, please accomplish my sacrifice;

I will give you whatsoever you may ask for.'' The dwarf bound him by an oath.

He fed the sacred flame with iron fuel, and lighted a lamp with water, [gift.

Thus accomplishing the sacrifice, he asked for the And Balí Chand said: "O Bráhman, ask for the gift, ask for the gift.

15. Whatsoever you ask for is acceptable to me."

The dwarf inquired: "O Rájá, what is that thing like a pan?"

The Rájá replies: "O Bráhman, call it not a pan, 'tis the full moon."

The dwarf inquires: "O Rájá, what is that like a

The dwarf inquires: "O Rájá, what is that like a rope there?"

The Rájá replies: "O Bráhman, call it not a rope, it is the Básukínág.

20. O Bráhman, ask for a gift, there is no refusing anything you may ask for."

The dwarf inquires again: "O Rajá, what's that on the roof like a golden basket?" The Rajá replies: "O Bráhman, call it not a basket,

'tis the golden roof.'
The dwarf said: 'I have accomplished your sacri-

fice, but you are changed.

Bestow on me two and a half paces of land.' Said

Bali Chand: "You are misled, and do not know how to ask,"

- Val. VII, No. 5.] Appendix to the Dicy. of Pakart Dialects. [N.S.]
 - 125. Gold, silver, horse and robes are gifts for a Bachman. I would have given you the fertile land in Balg, wherein grows a khársh of grain."

In one step he covered half the earth and in another the whole world.

But there being no room for the half step. Rájá Balí Chand bent down his neck for it,

He was cast down into the seventh lower region. Rájá Balí besought Vishnu, saying: "Do not abolish my name.

130. Give me two days of conjunction and two days of the new moon," asked Rájá Balí Chand.

"O Rájá Balí Chand, I cannot give you so much, but I'll allow you one day of conjunction and one day of the new moon," added Vishnu.

Bali Chand exclaimed: "O Diwali, when will you

come?" She said, "in October."

"With what greedy desire?" "Of maidens and children.''

135. "O Diwali, when will you come?" "with the desire of walnuts and roasted grain,1

And with the desire of beautiful women and handsome youths."

So much is the Bla'j Song.

¹ Roasted grain and walnuts are divided among friends and relations at the fair.

MAY, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 3rd May, 1911, at 9-15 P.M.

LIEUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT, F.A.S.B., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. I. H. Burkill, Mr. J. A. Chapman, Dr. L. L. Fermor, Mr. F. H. Gravely, Dr. G. D. Hope, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Mr. Jas. Insch, Mr. W. Kirkpatrick, Hon. Mr. Deva Prosad Sarvadhikary, Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, Maulavi Abdul Wali, Rev. A. W. Young.

Visitors: -Mr. B. Felsenthal, Mrs. Insch, and another.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Nineteen presentations were announced.

The following three gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

- Mr. A. T. Gopinatha Rao, M.A., Superintendent of Archæology, Trevandrum, proposed by Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, seconded by Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana. Mr. Albert Charles Atkinson, Offg. Principal, La Martinière, Calcutta, proposed by Mr. J. A. Chapman, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper. Mr. C. E. Lomax, M.A. (Oxon), Master, La Martinière, proposed by Mr. H. P. Watts, seconded by Mr. D. Hooper.
- Mr. I. H. Burkill exhibited specimens of the prickly pears now wild in India, and gave some account of their introduction in connection with attempts to rear cocheneal in India.

The following papers were read:-

- 1. Swertias chinenses quatuor Novas, ex herbario G. Bonati, descripsit I. H. BURKILL.
- 2. Note on Sterculia alata, Roxb. var. irregularis, a remarkable instance of leaf variation.—By W. W. SMITH. Communicated by MAJOR A. T. GAGE, I.M.S.
- 3. A new Gentian and two new Swertias from the East Himalaya.—By W. W. SMITH. Communicated by MAJOR A. T. GAGE, I.M.S.
- 4. Plantarum Novarum in Herbario Horti Regii Calcuttensis Cognitarum Decas.—Autoro W. W. SMITH. Communicated by MAJOR A. T. GAGE, I.M.S.

These papers have been published in the Journal for March 1911.

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5. Some Ouvent Pushtu Folk-Stories.—By Lauur. F. H.,
MALYON.

This paper will be published in the Memoirs.

- 6. The Composition of Indian Yams.—By D. HOOPER.
- 7. Some Asiatic Milk-Products.—By D. HOOPER.

These papers have been published in the Journal for March 1911.

8. Elucidation of certain passages in I-tsing.—By KASHI P. JAYASWAL.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

9. Interaction of Hydrazine Sulphate with Nitrites and a new method for the determination of "Nitritic" Nitrogen.—By BIMAN BEHARI DEY and HEMENDRA KUMAR SEN. Communicated by DR. P. C. RAY.

This paper has been published in the Journal for April 1911.

10. Description of three new species of Algae associated with Indian Freshwater Polyzoa.—By PROFESSOR WM. WEST, with notes by DR. N. ANHANDALE.

This paper has been published in the Journal for March

1911.

11. Father A. Monserrate's Description of Delhi (1581), Firoz Shah's Tunnel.—By REV. H. HOSTEN, S.J.

This paper has been published in the Journal for April 1911.

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 10th May, 1911, at 9-20 P.M.

LIEUT.-COLONEL C. R. M. GEREN, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. G. C. Chatterjee, Dr. C. H. Elmes, Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S.; Dr. Indu Madhab Mullick, Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Medical Secretary.

Visitors :- Lieut.-Colonel W. B. Thomson, R.A.M.C.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

I. A demonstration of a method of dark background illumination for the Microscope by the Secretary.

II. A case of Leprosy in a European in which striking improvement almost amounting to a cure had resulted without any specific line of treatment—shown by the Secretary.

The following paper was read :-

A particular form of fracture of skull.—By SARASI LAT. SARKAR. Communicated by DR. G. C. CHATTERJEE.

23. A Vocabulary of the Pasi Boli 1 or Argot of the Kunchbandiya 2 Kanjara. 3

By W. KIRKPATRICK.

The Kunchbandiya Kanjars are at the present day a nonoriminal section of the vagrant tribes of a Gipsy character known all over India by the generic name of Kanjar.

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Sherring's Hindu Tribes and Castes, Vol. I, p. 389, for Kanjars.

DO.	ao.	do. for Sansias, voi. 11, p. 1	
Do.	do.	do. for Kanjars, Vol. II, p. 1	55.
Do.	do.	do. for Yarakhala Sansias,	Vol.
		III n 137	

Do. do. do. for Siakali Lambadi, Vol. II I, p. 138.

Col. Barr's Wandering Tribes of Kathiawar.

Balfour's Cyclopædia of India and Eastern and S. Asia, Vol.

III, p. 74, for Kanjars.

Do. do. do. for Sansias, Vol. I, p. 131.

2 i.e. makers of brushes; from Kunch the brush used by weavers

for cleaning the warp threads, and bandhna to tie.

8 Mr. Crooke gives the derivation as Sanskrit Kananachara in the sense of a wanderer in the jungle; cf. with Harriott's ingenious derivation of Romnichal (**) = Ramna* "a park, plain or champagne," and chal (**) "rover, wanderer, traveller." Mr. Nesfield's theory and etymology is to me quite as convincing and more picturesque. See Mr. Nesfield's article in Calcutta Review, Vol. LXXVII Sir Herbert Risley in "Tribes and Castes of Bengal' disposes of the Kanjar with the following description: "Khangor, Kanjar, a gypsy caste of the North-West Provinces who hunt jackals, catch and eat snakes, and make strings of hemp and cotton. In Behar they are chiefly rope twisters."

¹ This secret code or language Kanjars themselves call Pasi Boli, Mr. Gayer in his Lecture on the Sansi and Beria says, "In speaking before others they employed Hindustani but among themselves they spoke a Marwari dialect, or a tribal dialect which they themselves called Parsi (sic)"; see note on the Chandramedis of Indore, a confraternity of criminals, in Appendix to Mr. Kennedy's "Criminal Classes in Bombay,"—they have "a secret code vocabulary called parsi." In the way the word was always pronounced to me the "r" was absent, i.e. pási.—W. K.

Orooke's Tribes and Castes of N.W.P., Vol. IV, pp. 277 to 286, for Sansias.

do. Vol. III, pp. 136-158, for Kanjars.

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¹ Mitra's Gypsies in his account of the "Gypsies of Bengal" are Bediges, a name which according to Sir Herbert Risley in "Tribes and Castes of Bengal," Vol I, p. 8., is descriptive of "a number of vagrant gypsy like groups."

This is a compilation on popular lines devoid of acknowledgments

⁸ Includes translation of a "Contribution to the History of Gypsies" by M. DeGoeje, Protessor of Arabic in the University of Leyden.

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[N.S.]

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My excuse for introducing the above Bibliography is that it may be of use to others interested in the wandering and casteless tribes of India. A reference to these authorities, whether they be the severe official recorder of facts or the ardent "gypsiologist," will show that many, if not all, have succumbed to the fascination of discovering linguistic likenesses, and perhaps what is nearer the mark, the similarity of purpose between Romanes or Romnichal and the cant of various Indian gypsy tribes. Although these recognized Gypsy tribes of India are not by any means bound by such ties as a common argot, it is in this connection that the Bibliography might be appreciated. Most of the authorities quoted give vocabularies of various secret and slang languages, and there are certainly many instances to be found of the resemblance of words; for example between the collection of Nut words by Capt. D. Richardson 100 years ago, and the Baoris cant given by Mr. Gayer in his lectures on "Some Criminal Tribes in India."

It will be observed that in the following vocabulary nouns predominate. This and a systematic use of inflections suffixed to the verbal root is a common characteristic of Gypsy argots, so that for purposes of ordinary conversation the code is maintained by an amalgamation with local dialects, such as Punjabi, Ját-ki-gal, Hindi or Marwari. I am informed by members of the clan themselves that the code is used even with Guzerati verbs as the medium.

The Kunchbandiya, and in fact all sections of Kanjars, practise a strict system of exogamy, and for this purpose are divided up into exogamous septs, mostly totemistic; and a case of a girl of a sept or sub-section from near Poona (Guzeráti) marrying into a Kanjar "camp" at Karnal came under my observation. From such alliances—which are not at all uncommon—between parties from districts hundreds of miles apart,

l Capt. D. Richarlson, who gives an interesting vocabulary of "Bengal Baseegars or Nuts," back-slang; states that "the Aunjurds are no other than those Baseegars or Nuts who inhabit the Upper Provinces of Hindustan."

we must expect a certain common use or union of dialects, and a resultant patois or argot which combined with the tribal special "slang" provides a sufficiently extensive vocabulary for the limited conversational requirements of a community of the present-day social status of the Kanjars. This process of an amalgamation of dialects among these vagrant tribes must eventually result in the discarding of any real original language, and a constantly changing argot. Much interest therefore attaches to words with which we can show some analogy in the various secret languages of Gypsies, whether in India or in

Europe.

I have compiled this short code personally without the aid of intermediaries, and in many cases caught the right word, and as far as I could the real phonetic pronunciation only after hearing it in actual use several times and over an extended period. My first experience of the Kunchbhand Kanjars was with a sub-section who in Delhi and the district call themselves Gehárás, and supply the local Tent Clubs! of Delhi and Muttra with shikaries. It was owing to their tactics during the earlier days of our acquaintance that I was fired with a desire to get to know more about them. It was common knowledge in villages and in "camp" among syces and others that these Kanjar-log had a boli2 of their own; but my earlier attempts at linguistic research in this direction were not successful. My informers unblushingly foisted on me what I subsequently discovered to be absolute gibberish. and it was only after I had known the clans settled in and around Delhi for some years, that I was really admitted into their confidence. It also so happened that about nine years ago I was in a measure instrumental in getting these Gehárás exempted from the more rigorous operations of the Criminal Tribes Act, and I believe I thus became something of a persona grata among them. I make no apology now for my apparent breach of confidence in committing their meagre cant to the care of the Asiatic Society. This particular branch of the tribe whom I discovered to the local authorities as Gehárás, and who have been mostly the source of my information, are now more or less occupied in the peaceful pursuits of making khas khas tatties and collecting pig's bristles, while the adventurous among them find scope for their natural bent in following "the line" of the Tent Club or taking the globetrotter out shikaring. As I say, the Gehárá sub-section of the Kunchbandiya Kanjars in and around Delhi are now a practically settled community, and any interest therefore which

¹ See Genl. Baden Powell's book on Pigsticking in India.
2 Talk or language. In Hindustani apas ká boli hai = "there is a language of their own," and which the Kanjars themselves called pási boli. I think it likely that pasi is slang for apas or apis or apas.

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we take in them or their manners and customs, their erigin and language can only operate to their benefit.

FOOD AND DOMESTIC.

Bajra (lesser Millet). Sarkuá. Bread Dhêmrî. Khimti dūbaigo.1 Burial Caste I ethéli. Child (male) Chōōkhá. Child (female) Chōōkhí. Toopká. Cloth, clothes Dead, he or it is Mikatchao. Drink Kürch. Dath lóg (or dut lóg). Eat. to Ninghár. Ghi (clarified butter) Khasari.2 Gold mohur Gür (molasses) Dátmi. Hookha Noojá. Rib. House, hut Sarkuá. Millets (Bajrá) Khád.8 Chaindhlá. Plate, earthen (utensils) Pulse Phénsni. Rice Kūtkár. Riká. Rupees Gudári. Shoes Chain: Chá-een. Sister Dátmi. Sugar. sweets Romák. Tobacco Chaindhla. Utensils Kumári. Virgin Lööbhar. Woman Dhoán. Well Roská. Wheat Nimáni. Water Bápîlo. Father

INTER-TRIBAL APPELLATIONS.

Chá ántári.

This use of different and disguised names by one tribe for another is curious. The popular name is well known to

1 Hind. mud matti, mitti. ² Hindustani asarji—a simple but effective disguise, and this affixing of a consonant, usually an r or a k, is a common method of conversion in Indian slang languages. See numerals bik one, Hindustani ik.

3 Hind. ddmi—an instance of dropping the suffix and prefixing the familiar k or kh—khádmi and khád.

Mother

the tribe, but they prefer a slang designation; for instance, in speaking of the Bhatus or Bhanta, the Kunchbhand Kanjars will them Rhantu: or, as they put it, "they are Bhatus but we call them Rhantu." This is a peculiarity which must add sonsiderably to the perplexities of the census enumerator, and I can well imagine it to be a fruitful source for the discovery of new septs and sub-sections. Take the Bédiya or Bériya—the Kunchbhand and other Kanjars as well, I believe, call them Jódái, and it would be only what one might expect for a not too interested enquirer to conclude that Jódai must be a new sept or sectional name, and so on. The following are a few distinctive inter-tribal names,—they might best be described as nick-names,—for all that, a particularly interesting part of this brief vocabulary:—

Bhátus or Bhántus

Bajánia

Bawar ya or Báoriá

Bédiya or Bériya

Gohar

Nat

Rhántū

Kanátiá

Párdi

Jodái

Péhndá

Péhndá

Goár (not to be confused with Gohár)

Kunchbhand Kanjars
Samperas, particularly; but
an appellation common to
all wandering tribes

Jogi

Gehárá

If the Kunchbhand Kanjar is ever in the jungle—and he is there pretty frequently—and he me ts the Sāmperā tribe, his salutation is "A Nāth Rām Rām!" and the greeting he gets in return is "Ram Ram bhai Gehari O!" Notice the feminine Gehari O!" This salutation indicates a past brother-hood when the Kunchbhand Kanjar was himself a nomad.

NUMERALS.

One	Bék
Two	Dobélū
Three	Thibélū
Four	Chábéla
Five	Rachélū 1
Six	Chhebelū
Seven	Sathélū
Eight	Athela
Nine	Nabélü
Ten	Dasélū
	77.7

Eleven, twelve and thirteen up to twenty there is no slang for; counting after this is done in tens; but twenty is bisélu, and after twenty we have forty = dobisélu, sixty =

l Notice the R : Rochsiu—not Pachelu as might be expected.

chibistle, and so on, to nabistle or 'nine twentys,' which is one hundred and eighty, the grand summit of their numerals and monetary value. Nabistlu reka=nine twentys, or one hundred and eighty rapees is the "bride price!" or what the bridegroom or his family have to pay the bride's family. In parting with his bride—divorcing her—a like sum has to be paid to her or her relations, presumably as a dot to help her to find another husband, a convenient arrangement for the gentleman who may have been the cause of the disruption,

ANIMALS.

Boar (Wild) Ghürer Cat Dhēēbri : Hare Khurrá Dog Jhöökal Jackal: Ghégar, Syar Nūtá Parrot Rail \mathbf{x} Rapéla, Sánpilo Snake Wild boar (single and in sounders) Ghúrér Wolf Rehdéiá Sand Lizard Sándá 2

NATURAL PHENOMENA.

Thipáro, dopáro, pailpáro, i.e. Afternoon. midday. the 3rd, 2nd and 1st watchmorning. es, in fact the same as Hindustani, but there is a distinct and peculiar pronunciation which quite obscures even familiar words like these. Day Din same as Hindustani Dawn Din nifargo 8 Death Mikatch Jhurrái, Joráhi Fire Chianda 4 Moon Khirth Night '

¹ Jackal slayer (?), a common appellation among these shikari tribes, and is the name given to a section of tribes classified by Crooke as "disreputable livers." Hind. gidar: Pers. shaqala: Sanscrit sriodi, a isokal.

^{*} Hind. Sant—a stallion; the oil of this sand lizard has a repu-

din = nifergo inifergo is to run—the day is running out of the

Hind, shond moon, so that chieffe is dislectic, but seein capable of clever disguise in pronunciation. Romanes for moon is discust.

Sky Storm Stars Sun Water Rádul 1 Khándi 2 Tarénge 8 Ghamèla Nimanî

Jágög 🌯

Jathelá

Chaiknao

Dūbárgo

Pamélá

Jabelo

Wo Jaogdá

MISCELLANEOUS.

Awake Bolt, do a Caste or tribe Drowned Feet Goes, there it goes Excitement (of the hunt or chase) Hide yourselves (imperative) Move on; gone on Mud Him, to Prostitute Quickly go Run, to He has gone somewhere, or to some place unknown Sleep, sleep, gone to Sleeping, He is See, to Seen (it), I have Spring, or well, or water hole in the sand of a river bed Thief Wait (imperative) Swim, to Yes Drink Drink water Smoke tobacco (i.e. drink or Smoking or drinking, he is

Jabélo ghabráro b Jūgjao Nipharo, challagdao Khimti Birókó Dhánchinî Chálagjáo Nipharná 6

Rárdês gáogiro Türrakgo Türrak ráhró Tigro Maine tigro

Dhoán Khainch Chaitjó Tūbárgo Hambá Kürchlo Nimáni kürchlo Romák kürchlo

Kürch ráhró Jándo

Know, I

i Hind. Bádul = clouds.

¹ Hind. andhi = dust-storm.

⁸ Hindi. tárá = stars. A simple adaptation of Hind. jágná to wake.
Hind. ghabrá giya = confused.
See 'dawn' and 'move on.'

Call out, in reference to a hank or "beat" when hunting and driving a jungle for game
Oh mother! expressive of sur-

prise or disgust, an appeal to their Deity

who is also called

Lalkáro

Diyá! Márani or Máhárani

If we accept the conclusion that the Gypsies scattered throughout Europe are all of Indian origin and descended from one original parent stock, and there appears to be a certain unanimity of opinion on this point, it is not remarkable that there should be an incidence of resemblances and even actual identity between Romanes and the argots of Kanjars and

allied tribes of a Gypsy character.

This vagrant race of people, or shall we say certain vagrant races of people, we call Gypsy in England,—a corruption of Egyptian, originating in the vulgar error that Egypt was their native place, and they are variously called Tinkler (Tinker) or Caird in Scotland, Gitana in Spain, Zigeuner in Germany, Zingari in Italy, Kanjar in India, and so on. comparative survey of the manners, customs, habits and occupations of the Kanjar with the English Gypsies,—the Zigeuner with the Zingari or the Gitana with the Bohemien, as they are called in France,—a comparison of their nomadic, and occasionally predatory, habits all temptingly point to their identity. In addition we find all these people have a phraseology of their own, call it what we may, back-slang or cant or jargon or gibberish. An investigation will show that none of these various argots or codes are without some consistence and character, whether we study the vocabularies given by Grellman, or Hoyland, or Irvine, or Colonel Harriot, or Leland, or Smart and Crofton, or even any of the various codes and vocabularies of Indian Gypsies, of which there are a large number of reliable collections, and to which reference has already been made.

And finally we have the remarkable linguistic similitude between Romanes or Rommichál and various Indian dialects, as may be clearly demonstrated from a comparison of any Romanes vocabulary and colloquial Hindustani of to-day.

There are two words in my Kanjar vocabulary to which I would draw attention,—whether the analogy is of any philological interest I leave it for others to decide. To me they are interesting as examples of words which, while having no outward resemblance to Hindustani equivalents,

¹ See Bengal Census Report, 1872, p. 158, for a complete refutation of this theory.

yet common to the argot of the Kunchbandga Kanjara d to Romnichal or Romanes of English and European Gypsies, common only to these two argots, and as far as I have been able to discover, to no other. The word for Dog in European Romanes is Jookal. Dr. Paspati gives it as djukel, Smart and Crofton in their elaborate and carefully prepared vecabulary give it as Jookel. Grellman includes Dog in his comparative view of "Gypsy & Hindustani" and gives the Gypsy for dog as Jukel, but and I would emphasize the significance of the omission—gives no Hindu stani equivalent. Colonel John Staples Harriot in his exhaustive "Comparative Vocabulary of the Gypsy Dialect "with a variety of Asiatic Synonymes deduced chiefly from "the Hindi or Language of Hindustan" gives the gypsy word for Dog as Jukal, Juklo. Lt. Irvine gives the gypsy for Dog as Jookil. Now compare the word in my collection used by the Kunchbandya Kanjar for a Dog,—they call it Jhūkal or Jhookul. I have made a close search in the fairly numerous codes and vocabularies of Indian Gypsies, to be found in the authorities I have already quoted, but do not find this equivalent repeated. Mitra's Bédēya vocabulary gives dog = nelya, while the nearest approach to a similar word is in Sleeman's "Ramaseeana or Vocabulary of the Thugs" which gives Dog = Jokkur. Further interest attaches to this word from the fact that the dog is a totem common to the Kanjar and allied Indian tribes.

Another word to be noticed is Mail—a Horse in Kunchbandya, while in Gypsy, according to Smart and Crofton, we have meila = an Ass; Hoyland moila, Harriot maila—an ass or donkey. Irvine myla; Borrow mailla; again Sleeman's Ramaseeana gives mawil a horse. This with Jokkur a dog in the language of the Thugs is suggestive, and may indicate the existence in days gone by of relations closer than mere cant between the Thugs and Kanjars. It is easy to see that mail might be pronounced as mawil, and in the case of Jokkur the interchange of the last letter r for l is a common variation.

Lööbhar in the Kunchbandiya Kanjar vocabulary is a woman, while Smart and Crofton in their vocabulary of Romanes give Lööbnia harlot or lübni, lüuni. Plural Loobniao. Paspati gives lübni; Colonel Harriot lüdni. Irvine Loovani = a wonch.

Mr. Nesfield in his article on "The Kanjars of Upper India," Calcutta Review, LXXVII, p. 368, says: "Amongst themselves they have a secret language which no one but a Kanjar can follow. From the specimens which I have been able to collect (and these were acquired for me by a native with the greatest difficulty), this seems to be chiefly based upon Hindi with certain inflections which

perhaps have been derived from some old Prairies divises now obsolete. Some of the words, however, some to have no connection whatever with any of the tongues now written

or spoken in India."

Mr. Nesfield's vocabulary consists of eighteen words, all of which are confirmed in the collection I have madewith one exception, and that is the word 'Wife' the Kanjar for which Mr. Nesfield gives as gihári. Now I have particularly referred to the sub-section of Kanjars who call themselves Gehárás. The feminine for Gehárá is of course Gehári, and the wife of a Gehard or for that matter any woman of the tribe would be called Gehári-just as we have the feminine for Jat as Jatni Rajput, Rajputni, or Chokrá a boy, chokri a girl, and so on. Gihari therefore is only "the wife of a Gehara." and is not the common word for "wife." I venture to emphasize this point as it is largely from the Gehara Kanjars that I have collected the above vocabulary. Genárá was apparently until 8 or 10 years ago used exclusively as an intertribal appellation; to every one else the tribes round Delhi, Muttra, Agra, Karnal, Meerut, Umballa and the U.P and S. Punjab generally being known as Kanjars. It is in eudeavouring to throw off the social stigma which attaches to the name Kanjar, and at the same time with the object of escaping the rigors of the Criminal Tribes Act, that these several families first openly declared themselves to be Gehárás and not mere Kanjars. I have not come across Gehárá as either a tribal or sept name in any census report or other Ethnographical analysis of Indian tribes or castes, and this makes Nesfield's application of the word Gihári as Kanjar for "a wife " all the more interesting. Mr. Nesfield's article was written previous to 1883, and the conclusion is that Gehárá is a secret tribal name, which it has only recently been found convenient to divulge.

24. The Evidence of the Faridpur Grants.

By RAKHAL DAS BANERJI, M.A.

In July last Mr. F. E. Pargiter, late of the Indian Civil Service, published three copperplate grants found in East Bengal in the "Indian Antiquary." The earliest of these plates was discovered twenty years ago and the discovery announced in 1892. Dr. Hoernle promised an edition of this copperplate eighteen years ago. It appears Pargiter's article that the plates, now three in number, were sent to the late Prof. Kielhorn in March 1905, but his sudden removal from this world prevented him from dealing with them. This indeed was unfortunate, as Dr. Kielhorn's unerring judgment would have saved all controversy on the subject. Mr. Pargiter has published these plates at the request of Dr. Hoernle from whom he obtained them in October 1908. In the second paragraph of his article Mr. Pargiter refers to a fourth plate, which was brought to Dr. Hoernle's notice by the late Dr. T. Bloch, then Superintendent of the Archeological Survey. Eastern Circle. Mr. Pargiter had a photograph of the fourth plate before him when he edited the three other plates. I had the honour of editing this fourth plate in the Journal of the Society, and as the publication of the three other plates throws further light on the history of this period, I am forced to make some remarks on the conjoint evidence of these four copperplate grants. The fourth plate belongs to Mr. H. E. Stapleton, B.A., B.Sc., of the Indian Educational Service. Further particulars about the provenance of this plate have already been recorded by the owner in a prefatory note to my article. The Bengalee gentleman referred to by Dr. Bloch in his letter to Dr. Hoernle is Prof. Nilmani Chakravartti of the Presidency College, to whom the plate was submitted for decipherment. I am rather surprised to learn that these three copperplates were purchased by Dr. Hoernle on behalf of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, as there is no record in the Society to show that they belong to it. So also in the case of the Grant of Vidyadhara Bhanja, Dr. Kielhorn's statement about the ownership of these plates was a revelation to us.

The following conclusions are derived from a comparative

study of these four copperplate grants:-

(1) From an examination of the characters of these inscriptions it appears that they were written in mixed alpha-

20

4

bets. While editing Mr. Stapleton's plate, I have tried to discuss the peculiarities of the characters to their fullest extent, but the publication of Mr. Pargiter's article necessitates a recapitulation of the whole argument. It appears to me, that on the basis of Palaeography, these four copperplates may safely be announced to be forgeries. The date of the forging of these grants cannot be exactly determined, but it is certain that they are not modern forgeries, but on the other hand, at least as ancient as the 11th or 12th century A.D.

(2) These copperplates show a novel method of granting land and conveying the same. In the grants published by Mr. Pargiter, this method, though different from those employed in all other grants, differs slightly at the same time from that employed in the fourth or Mr. Stapleton's grant.

(3) The seals on the three copperplate grants are at least a couple of centuries older than the characters employed in the inscriptions. The seals, it should be mentioned, are not of the princes mentioned therein, but belong to certain District officials. In this case too we find a remarkable departure from the usage to be found in the majority of copperplate grants.

(4) The language of the three older copperplate inscrip-

tions is not so vague as that of Mr. Stapleton's grant.

(5) The dates to be found on these copperplates cannot be referred to any particular era known at present. In my article on Mr. Stapleton's grant, I have said that the date in it probably referred to the *Harsa Samvat*, but a careful perusal of Mr. Pargiter's article and a thorough examination of the three inscriptions published by him have convinced me that these dates are either regnal years, or as vague and indefinite as the inscriptions themselves.

(6) Finally, we have some material at least for the history of Bengal during the dark period which ensued upon the fall of the empire of Harsa-Vardhana till the rise of the Pālas of Bengal. This material, though not so definite, casts some side lights upon the internal condition of the country in that

period.

I shall now take the conclusions stated above in proper order.

I. THE CHARACTERS OF THE INSCRIPTIONS.

First of all, I shall take the inscriptions edited by Mr. Pargiter in the order in which he has taken them.

(1) The Grant of Dharmmaditya: the year 3.

A very marked difference is noticeable in the use of the letters Ha and La. We have two forms of Ha in this inscription: lst, the Eastern variety of the early Gupta form, which is to be found in the Allahabad Inscription of Samudragupta, the Kahaum Inscription of Skandagupta, and the Dhantidaha

Grant of Kumaragupta 1.1 In all we have eight instances of this two of this form of Ha in this plate :—

Brhaccatta in	line 4.	Avadhrtam-astiha	in	line 10.
Icchamyaham ,,	.,, 7.	Hastena	. ,	., 15.
Brahmanasya,	.,, 8.	Paratrānugraha	,,,	,, 18.
Grativa ,,	~,, 8.	Himasena		,, 23.

In all other cases we find that the Ha of the Western variety of the Gupta alphabet in use with its 6th century addition of an acute angle. We have in all eight cases of its use:—

Ç.	Maharajadh	irāja in	line	2.	Mātāpitroranugraha	in	line	19.
			**	2.	Haret	,,,	,,	24.
	Mahattara		,,	4.	Himasena	.,,	, ,	25.
	Tadarhatha			8.	Saha			25.

In a previous paper I have already noticed that the early Gupta forms were gradually dying out of the Eastern alphabet about the middle of the 5th century A.D., so it is not likely that they should occur with such persistence in 7th or 5th

century inscriptions.2

This discrepancy is still more remarkable, as the scribe has used the different forms in writing the same word; for example, compare the word *Himasena* in line 23 and line 25 and the word *Anugraha* in lines 18 and 19. It should be noticed in this connection that the form of *Ha* of the Eastern variety to be found in this inscription is somewhat different from that to be found in the three inscriptions cited above. In fact, it is difficult to make out whether the letter is a *Ra* of the 8th century or a *Ha* of the 5th century. So also in the case of the letter *La*, we find that in some instances the hooked form, which is to be found in the Eastern variety of the early Gupta alphabet, has been used, but in the majority of cases the form of the Western variety is to be found. Thus we find the earlier form in six cases:—

Labdha	in	line !	2.	<i>Lābhạh</i> ir	line	13.
Kālasakha	,,	lines		Samkalpābhih,	, ,,	
Durllabha	,,	line	6.	Silakundakca ,	, ,,'	24.

but the form of Western variety is found in all other cases:-

Kulacandra	in	line	4.	Dhruvilātyām	in	line	16.
Alrıka	.,,	,,	5.	Kulya	,,	,,	16.
Kulasvāmi	,,	,,	6.	Kāla		"	18.
Mülyam	,,	. 7 33	8.	Salanga	,,	,,,	19.
Pustapāla	,,	91	9.	Uparilikhita	,,		20.
Kulya	,,		11.	Anupālancha	,,		21.

1 Ibid., vol. v. p. 459.

¹ Ibid., p. 460; of. also Bloch in Arch. Survey Report, 1993-4, p. 102.

Kalana in line 12. Pratipālanīyam in line 22.
Abhilāṣa ,, ,, 14. Lingāni ,, ,, 23.
Nalena ... 16.

We also find two forms of the superscript form of long $\bar{1}$. We have two cases of the older forms:— $Sr\bar{i}$ Dharmmäditya in line 2 and Pratipālanīyam in lines 22-23: as well as two cases of the 6th century form:— $Upakr\bar{i}ya$ in line 8 and $S\bar{i}m\bar{a}$ in line 23. We have also two forms of Tha in this inscription. One is the earlier form resembling the Greek letter θ which is to be found in the word Apratiratha and the word Abhyarthana in line 9, and the acute-angled 6th century form of the letter to be found in $Tath\bar{a}$ in line 11 and line 14.

The lingual $\Im a$ throughout is of the looped form, which is one of the characteristics of the Eastern variety of the early Gupta alphabet. The form of Ma is peculiar; it has the form which is to be found in the Bhāradi Dih Inscription of

Kumarāgupta I.¹

(2) The Grant of Dharmmaditya, no date.

The collotype plate published by Mr. Pargiter is very indistinct and its paleographical peculiarities cannot be determined with certainty. So far as I have been able to examine them they vary much less than in the plate mentioned above. The following peculiarities are noticeable: the form of Ha is throughout that of the Western variety of the Gupta alphabet, the acute angle being absent. We have two varieties in the case of La. In one case the Eastern form of the early Gupta alphabet occurs, e.g., Mandala in line 4, but in all other cases the 6th century form with the usual acute angle has been used. There are altogether seven clear instances of its use, and what is still more remarkable in one case where the letter has been used as a superscript the Nagari form has been used, e.g., Slokani in line 24. In this case the form used is clearly the Nagari form, or more accurately, the Eastern variety form of the 9th century A.D. The East is very conservative, and even so late as the time of Devapaladeva of Bengal the form used resembles the Gupta form rather than the Nagari. In the Ghosrawa Inscription of Devapaladeva the form used is that of the early Gupta alphabet without any acute angles.2 The earliest certain date of the suse of this form of La in the East seems to be the Dighwa-Dubauli Plate of Maharaja Mahendrapāladeva of the Vikrama year 955 = 898 A.D.8

Instances of the use of the 6th century form of La:-

¹ Ibid., p. 458, pl. xix.
2 Ind. Ant., vol. xvii., p. 309. Bühler, Indische Paleographie,
Tafel v. col. v. 37.
3 Ant., vol. xv, p. 112.

Babdha in line 8. Dharmmatila in line 14. Käle , 4. Nalena , 5, 14. Kulya , , , 14. Lingāni , , , , 20. Akhila , , , 15.

We have two different methods of writing the compound nda: Mandala in line 4 and Kārandaya in line 5. The form in Mandala is the usual form to be found in inscriptions from the 4th century A.D. to the 8th century. There are several other cases, of the occurrence of this compound, but the form everywhere is the same except in line 5. The form of long I is peculiar in Mahapratihāra in lines 3-4. The form of Ma is the one usually found in Gupta inscriptions. The lingual Sa throughout has the looped form in all cases of its occurrence.

(3) The Grant of Gopacandra: the year 19.

The facsimile of the third plate also has not been well reproduced. I believe if the second and third plates had been reproduced by photogravure or photo-etching the result would have been far better. Experience has gradually shown that the reproduction of shallow inscriptions from inked impressions is a mistake. The plates published with my article on Mr. Stapleton's grant are reproduced from photographs of the original plates. The obverse side of the third grant is badly corroded as has been stated by Mr. Pargiter, and consequently the reproduction is hardly of any use for palæographical purposes. I have had to depend on the reverse for the palseographical examination of this grant. So far as is legible of the obverse of this grant has also been used in the following. examination. On the obverse the 6th century form of Ha has been generally used, but on the reverse the Eastern variety of the Gupta alphabet is to be seen in all cases. On the obverse only one specimen of this letter is distinct: Mahapratikāra in line 3, while on the reverse we have four instances of the use of the early Greata form :-

Hastāstaka in line 19. Hareta in line 24. Dhruvilātyāgrahāra ,, ,, 24. Saha ,, ,, 25.

In the majority of cases the form of La used is that of the 6th century variety. In two cases only the older form has been used: Vatsapāla in line 5 and Lingāni in line 21, but even then with some modification, so that the difference is not noticeable. We have in all nine sear cases of the use of the 6th century forms:—

in line 14. in line 19. Nalena Mülyam 19. Pustaväla ,, ,, 17. Vatsapāla Kulavaran 18. Kulya ** *** ** Dhruvilātyāgrahāra ,, 🍇, 18. Dharmmaiila ,,

There is an important departure in this plate compared with the preceding two. This is the use of the bipartite form of Ya side by side with the usual 6th century open-hooked tripartite form. Dr. Hoernle has made exhaustive enquiries into the limit of the tripartite form of Ya, but as Dr. Kielhorn has shown in several places, the exact limit cannot be fixed with certainty, but the anomaly of the use of the bipartite with the tripartite is evident even to the uninitiated. We have four clear cases of the use of each in this grant:—

Bipartite For		Tripartite Form.				
Vikkrīyamānakāni ¹ Nayabhūti Yo	11	,,	17.	Navyāvakātikā	<i>īyāi</i> n in l	
	"	"	25.	Avadhāraņāya	in lines	17-18.

The form of lingual Sa used in this plate is the usual one of the Eastern variety of the early Gupta alphabet, but the loop is more pronounced in this plate than in the preceding couple. The form of Ma-also is not the same as in the preceding ones. It is indeed the usual form of the 6th century alphabet of the East.

(4) The Grant of Samācāradeva: the year 14.

I have already exhaustively treated the peculiarities of the characters of this plate in my previous article. What remains for me is to compare the characters of this grant with those of the other three dealt with above. The perusal of Mr. Pargiter's able article on the three grants from Faridpur has obliged me to modify portions of my reading of Mr. Stapleton's plate; consequently some new statements on the palæography of this grant will be necessary. It is already evident from the above examination that the test letters of this period are Ha and La. The test letters of the earlier period—the palatal, lingual and dental sibilants—are no longer of much value; in fact the palatal Sa remains practically unchanged in form from the 1st century A.D. to the 8th. In the Eastern variety of the characters of the 4th and 5th centuries A.D. the form of the lingual Sa is indeed a test to prove the Eastern or Western origin of the alphabet; but it is on the two letters mentioned, La and Ha, that we have to depend for a critical determination of the nature and characteristics of the alphabet. Similarly we have another test letter in Ya, which at this time changes from the tripartite form to the bipartite form when it occurs singly. In a former paper I have had to deal exhaustively

¹ This should be read Vikkriyamānakani instead of Vikkriyamānāni as Mr. Pargiter proposes to read. The plate shows a syllable between na and ni, but this appears to be ta and is probably due to a flaw in the impression. I propose to restore it in the form stated above. We have an extra ka in the same word in plate i, line 11. Ind. Ans., 1910, p. 1954.

with the transformation of this letter when used as a subscript. Dr. Hoernie's labours on the later transformation of this letter hardly leaves any room for further work with the data at present in hand. The presence of the acute angle is also another important feature in the determination of the characteristics of the alphabet. On this point Dr Bühler Says .---

"About the beginning of the 6th century we find in the Northern Inscriptions both of Eastern and Western India (Plate IV, Cols. X-XII) distinct beginnings of a new development which first leads to the forms of the Gaya Inscription of A.D. 588-89 (Plate IV, Cols. XV, XVI). Their chief characteristic is that the letters slope from the right to the left, and show acute angles at the lower or at the right ends, as well as that the tops of the vertical or slanting lines invariably bear small wedges, and their ends either show the same ornaments or protuberances on the right. These peculiarities are observable in a large number of inscriptions of the next four centuries, and it seems to me advisable to class the characters of the whole group as those of the acute-angled alphabet." 2 So the presence of the acute angle though a determining factor is at the same time not a very clear indicative of the age of an inscription: but in the earlier period of the acute-angled alphabet, i.e., when the transformation of right-angled letters into acute-angled ones take place, the acute angle has justly been regarded as a determinant of the date of an inscription. In the following centuries the acute angle ceases to be of any value in the determination of the date of an inscription. In the Eastern variety of the Northern alphabet the latest use of the right-angled characters seem to be in the Mundesvari Inscription of Udayasena.8

The acute angle is more or less present in the characters of the first grant: thus we have it very distinctly in Sa, Sa Ya, Gha, Dha, Ha (of the 6th century form) and Ma. It is conspicuous by its absence in the case of certain letters such as Ja, Pa, and Va. In the second grant we have acute angles in Ya, Sa, Sa and Gha. It is absent in La, Pa and some other letters. In the third grant the acute angle is present in Ya, both bipartite and tripartite, Ha, Şa, Sa and Ma. It is absent in La, Va, Pa, Dha, etc. In the fourth grant the acute angle is present in Sa, Pa, Ya, Dha and Ma. It is absent in Sa, Ha Ja, etc. Thus we find that in these grants the acute angle is present in certain letters and absent in others. This alone would point out the date of these inscriptions and place them in the last half of the 6th century or first

, A

⁸ Epi. Ind., vol. ix, p. 281.

¹ Ind. Ant., 1908, pp. 34-39.
2 Bühler's Indische Palæographie (Eng. Ed.), p. 49.

half of the 7th. The next point is the form of the letter I's when it cooms alone, as the subscript form does not vary in insoriptions of this period. We find that the first two grants inversably use the tripartite form of Ya: it is only in the third grant that we find both forms of Ya used together. In the fourth grant, on the other hand, the bipartite form of Pa has been used throughout the inscription. Finally we come to the test letters Ha and La. I have already shown in the examination of the characters of the different plates the several different instances of the use of the different forms of these two letters. Thus we find in the first grant in eight cases the Eastern variety of early Gupta form has been used, while in the remaining eight cases the early 6th century form is to be found. In the case of La, we find the earlier form in six cases and the later form in 17 cases. But in inscriptions in which the presence of the acute angle is general one hardly expects to find such early forms of a character used side by side with the later forms. Unfortunately in the case of the second plate the facsimile does not allow us to be definite in our statements, but as much of it as is legible shows the same mixture of earlier and later forms. The reproduction of the third plate is somewhat better, though the obverse is more or less blurred by corrosion. Here also we find the same mixture of early and later forms of Ha and La; but in this plate the earlier form of La approaches more to the 6th century form than in the two preceding plates. In the case of the fourth plate I have all the advantages of having the original before me just now. Here also we find the same mixture of the different varieties of Ha and La. I do not want to recapitulate the details of my former examination, but it is gratifying to see that I was correct in my estimate of the characters of this plate. The correctness of my result is supported by the foregoing examination of the characters of the three other plates. The palæographical evidence of the four plates taken Jointly prove that the grants are spurious. The alphabet in which they are written has been compiled from that of three different centuries, wz. 4th, 5th and 6th centuries A.D. I shall have to refer to the numerals used in these plates in a later of my essay, and the determination of the date of these grants is a matter of considerable difficulty and ought to be treated separately.

The foregoing palæographical examination will be incomplete if the characters of these four plates are not compared with those found in some records which have been incised in characters of a similar nature. The most important inscription in Nepal for this period is the Changunārāyan Pillar Inscription of Mānadeva. I mean that this is important for the palæography of the four plates which form the subject of this paper. This inscription was brought to public notice by

the late Dr. Bhagwanial Indraji.! The inscription is dated in the year 386 of a certain era, which has not been specified in it. Scholars differ very widely about the era in which this lastrip. tion is dated. Dr. Indraji referred the inscription to the. Vikrama era, which is manifestly impossible. Later on Dr. Fleet in his Classic Work on "Gupta Inscriptions" referred the date to the Gupta era. This also is hardly possible, as in that case the date of the inscription would be equivalent to 705 A.D. It is evident even at a glance that the characters of the inscription are centuries older than those used in the 7th or 8th century A.D. M. S. Levi, who has reopened the subject in his admirable work on Nepal, has proved definitely from accurate astronomical calculations that the year 386 is equivalent to 496-97 A.D.8 M. Lèvi's calculation is amply supported by the palæography of the inscription. He has not examined the characters at length, but he has referred the reader to his remarks on another epigraph inscribed with similar characters, viz. that on the Pillar of Harigaon: but the inscription of Changunarayan—the date of which has been accurately fixed—is too important to be omitted. In this document we find that the La and Ha throughout are of the form which is to be found in the Eastern variety of the early Gupta alphabet (i.e. the Northern alphabet of the 4th and 5th centuries A.D.). We find all other characteristics, which, according to Bühler, characterize this variety. Thus we have the looped form of the lingual Sa and the medial I which "consists of two horns." There is not a single instance in which the 6th century or the Western variety form of Ha, La and Sa have been used in this inscription. Bühler has already noticed the presence of the acute angle in Pa, Sa and Sa. So the characters of the inscription belong to the 4th and 5th centuries A.D., and it can never be accurately referred to the 8th century. This, I believe, is a strong support of M. Levi's astronomical calculation. The second inscription in early Gupta characters edited by M. Levi is the Hārigāon Piller Inscription. Unfortunately this inscription is not dated, but here also we find that in all cases Ha; La and Sa have the form which we find in the Eastern variety of the early Gupta alphabet. I must make certain reservations about the characters of this inscription. The facsimile is so very indistinct that I must admit my examination is not definite. The original is very large in size, and its reproduction on an

¹ Ind. Ant., vol. ix, pp. 163-166.

^{*} Plest's Gupta Inscriptions, Introduction, p. 95.

* Annalis du Musée Guinet, tomo xix; le Nopel, par Sylvain

Lord, vol. Mt., pp. 8-9. 4 (feed, pp. 36-41 : Journal Assatique X^m série, tome **18**, pp. 391-

⁵ Bilhler's Indian Palasgraphy (Eng. Edn.), p. 47.

octavo size plate is almost illegible. The reproduction both in the Journal Asiatique and in the Annales of the Musée, Guimet should have been on a more liberal scale. medial i and the lingual Na are archaic in form and I do not understand why M. Lévi refers this inscription definitely to the 6th century A.D. On the other hand, I beg to differ from his conclusion. The inscription certainly belongs to the 5th century A.D. and cannot be referred to any later date. In this connection, I may be allowed to state that M. Lévi's theory about an era of the Licchavis, the initial year of which falls in 110 A.D., does not in any way interfere with my statements about the peculiarities of the epigraphic alphabet of the 6th century A.D.2 Thus if the date of Bendall's Golmadhitol Inscription be 516 instead of 316, and if, at the same time, the date is referred to the era of the Licchavis and not to Gupta era, the actual difference in the date is very slight and does not interfere with my arguments. Referred to the Gupta era the date is 318+319=637 A.D., if referred to the era of Licehavis 4-518 + 110 = 628. Thus, if both conditions are observed rigidly, the actual difference in the date is ten years only. I believe M. Lévi is quite right in reading the numeral for 500 and referring the date to the era of the Licchavis. Thus we find that in the 6th and the 7th century the Ha, La and Sa have the usual form of the characters: cf. the steles of Härigaon dated Harsa samvat 30 and 32, i.e. 636 and 638 A.D. The older inscriptions dated in the Harsa era have been already mentioned by me in a previous paper quoted above and they fully bear out the conclusions arrived at.

(II) THE METHOD OF GRANTING LAND.

We find a novel method of granting and to a Brāhmana in these four copperplate grants. The usual method, which is to be found in the majority of the copperplate grants in Northern India, is that a King grants the land to a Brāhmana and has the document inscribed on a plate or a number of plates of copper in order to ensure its permanency. In my paper on Mr. Stapleton's, grant I have already stated the usual characteristics of a copperplate grant. They are:—

"(1) The first portion may be either in prose or verse and generally gives the genealogy of the King or an eulogium on him. In shorter grants this portion is written in prose and gives the titles of the King." There are two grants in which

a Prince of subordinate rank grants a piece of land.

¹ Annales du Musee Guimet, tome xix ; Le Népal, vol. iii, p. 27.

Epi. Ind., vol. ix, pp. 285-286.
 Annales du Muses Guimet, tome xix, Le Népal, vol. iii, pp. 74-75.
 Ibid., pp. 50-51.

(i) The Ganjam Grant of Sainyabhita-Madhavaraja of the Gupta year 300. In this inscription Madhavaraja acknowledges himself to be a vassal of Sasanka, whom the use of the Gupta era shows to be the same man as the adversary of Harsa-Vard-In this inscription we have simply the mention of Sasānka as a suzerain. The earlier verses give the complete genealogy of the race of the grant or from Sailodbhava to Mādhavaraja.

(ii) The Patiakella Grant of Sivaraja. This is a very short inscription, and in this we have simply the mention of the suzerainty of Sivarāja²; but we find a startlingly different

method in these four grants, and in order to get at the method employed in each these plates we shall have to analyse them separate (a) Grand the time of Dharmmāditya, the year 3.—From this grand we learn that in the third year of the Emperor Dharmmaditya a subordinate King named Sthanudatta reigned in the Varaka-Mandala. The connection of the Visayapati Jājuva with the rest of the sentence is not certain, and Mr. Pargiter's translation is still more indefinite. We feel surer ground when we come to the announcement that a certain Vatabhoga announces to the principal men of the district, whose names are enumerated at length, that he wishes to buy a parcel of land from them and to give it to a Brahmana; the headmen agree and lay down certain conditions. Vatabhoga having agreed to these conditions purchased the land and bestowed it on a Brāhmana named Candrasvāmin.

(b) The undated Grant of the time of Dharmmāditya.—In this inscription we have some still more startling conditions. In the empire of Dharmmaditya a certain officer (Mahapratihāra-Uparika) named Nāgadeva was placed in charge of Navyāvakāšikā. This name is also to be found in Mr. Stapleton's grant and is probably the name of the Bhūkti in which the Vārakamandala was situated. Nāgadeva appointed Gopālasvāmin as an officer in the Vārakamandala. Vāsudevasvāmin approached the officers, the Elder Scribe (Jyestha Kayastha) Nayasena, and the leading men of the district, with a view to certain land. As before in the case of No. 1, the land was sold and granted to a Brāhmana named Somasvāmin.

(c) The Grant of the time of Gopacandra, the year 19.—From this grant we learn that in the 19th year of the Emperor Gopacandra, Nāgadeva was in charge of Navyāvakāsikā. He seems to have gained some additional titles, but the decay of the inscription prevents us from quoting them at length. I would, however, restore the word beginning with Ku as Kumāra-padīy-āmatya-Uparika; but a new officer has been appointed to the Varakamandala and his name is Vatsapalasvawho approached the Elder Scribe and the leading men for the purchase of a parcel of land, but so far is certain, that the land is afterwards granted to a Brahmana named Bhatta Gomidattasvāmin. The statement in lines 19-20 seems to indicate that Vatsapālasvāmin himself was the purchaser and granter of the land.

(d) The Grant of Samācāradeva, the year 14.--From this inscription we learn that in the 14th year of an Emperor named Samācāradeva a certain Jīvadatta was in charge of Navyāvakāsikā and a second officer named Pavittruka held the mandala of Vāraka under him. A certain Supratīkasvāmin informs the officers and the leading men that he wishes to dedicate a piece of land for the performance of radic rites and sacrifices. The exact wording of the plate is very doubtful, but so far is certain, that in this plate there is no mention of the land being conveyed to a Brahmana. In the preceding plate mention is made of a Puetapala or Record-Keeper, who measures land or parcels it out; thus we have Vinayasena in the first grant, Janmabhūti in the second, and Nayabhūti in the third grant. But in the fourth grant we have the mention of some officials Karanika, of whom only two are named, Nayanaga and Kesava There is no mention of the determination of land or the measurement as in the three preceding plates. We have a new word in this plate which occurs also in the third plate and which I took to be Kulacaran.1

To sum up, we find that in the first two plates a private person approaches the officers and the elders of a district and with their consent purchases a piece of land. It is not mentioned whether the purchase is made from private persons or from the royal or public domain land. The officers agree to the purchase and the area is determined by a Record-Keeper. Immediately after the purchase the land is granted to a Brahmana. In the third plate the purchaser of the land is himself an official, all other conditions of the purchase being identical. In the fourth plate we find that a private person approaches the officials and elders of a district for a piece of land, which is to be set aside for the performance of Vedic rites. It should be noted in this connection that the word sale has not been used at all in this inscription, and it may be that Supratikasvamin approached the officials and the elders of the district for a parcel of land for his own use. I have already noted this fact in my article on this plate. In this respect the fourth plate differs very greatly from the preceding ones, and it seems probable that the forger of this grant was not so capable a man as those of the preceding ones. Thus we have a new order of copperplate inscriptions, viz. records of the sale of a [N.S.] of the same by a private person to a Brahmana. This remark applies with equal force to the first three plates; the uncertainty of the meaning of the fourth inscription making its case doubtful. In the long list of Northern Indian Copper Plate Inscriptions we do not find a single instance of the sale of land to private persons either by or through state officials or of a grant of land made to a Brahmana by a private person; neither do we find an instance of a grant of land being made by officials with the consent of the leading men of a district.

(III) THE SEALS OF THE COPPER PLATES,

Only the first three copperplates have a seal attached to each of them. The fourth plate, as I have already remarked, has lost its seal, though traces of its attachment are still clear. Mr. Pargiter's plate was sealed with the same seal, It is oircular in shape and is divided into two unequal portions by two parallel horizontal lines. The upper part—which is the larger -bears the emblems and the lower one the legend. A double scroll-ornament is attached to each side of these seals. seal of the second plate has lost portions of this ornament. On the seals of the first two plates the emblem consists of a standing female figure in the middle with a tree on each side; two elephants are pouring water over her head. Mr. Pargiter supposes that in the first plate he can discern a kneeling attendant figure and in the second a standing attendant. emblems agree remarkably well with those to be found on the clay sealings of the early Gupta imperial officers discovered by the late Dr. Bloch at Basarh in the Mozufferpur district of Bengal. Here we find that in the majority of official seals a standing female figure occurs in the upper part. Thus:-

(1) Yuvarāja-pādīya-Kumārāmātyādhikaranu.1

(2) Sri-Yuvarāja-Bhattāraka-pādiya-Kumārāmātyādhikara-

(3) Tirabhukty-Uparik-ādhikaranasya.8

(4) Tirabhuktau-Vinaya-ethiti-ethāpak-ādhikaranasya. In his article on Basarh Dr. Bloch refers to the similarity between the seal of the first grant and some of his clay sealings.

It should be noted that the seals affixed to these copperplates are not those of the officers who approve the sales, nor do they belong to the private personages who give away the

Annual Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1903-04, p. 107, No. 4, pl. xi, 10. * Ibid., pl. xi, 11.

^{*} Ibid., pl. xi, 11. 3 Ibid., p. 109, pl. xi, 8. 4 Ibid., pl. xi, 13. 5 Ibid., p. 106.

land to Brahmanas, but on the other hand, they are seals of the officer in charge of the Varaka mandala. This fact also is exceptional in character, as no other Northern Indian copperplate bears the seal of an official. The only exception to this is the Tippera copperplate referred to by Dr. Bloch. This copperplate was sent to the Asiatic Society of Bengal or the Indian Museum. This plate is written in characters of the 9th or 10th century A.D., but the seal attached to it is several centuries older, as it is written in the alphabet of the early Gupta Kings. The legend runs as follows:

Kumārāmātyādhikaraṇasya.

This shows that several centuries after the downfall of the early Gupta empire, descendants of their officials in different parts of the country continued to hold sway over the territories held by their ancestors. Dr. Bloch says -- "If the inscription on the plate is not a mere forgery, which I am unable to decide at present, we should find an officer of the rank of Kumārāmātyādhikarna continuing to enjoy a certain amount of territorial independence in a remote district of the East for centuries after the period of the early Gupta Kings." Thus we see that the seal belonged to an official of the Gupta empire and most probably retained in the possession of his descendants. It was used to forge these three grants in order to establish a claim to certain lands, evidently during a period of confusion and anarchy. Such periods were unfortunately only too frequent in the history of Eastern India during the century between the fall of the empire of Harsavardhana and the rise of the Palas in Bengal.

(IV) THE LANGUAGE OF THE GRANTS.

Mr. Pargiter's researches have revealed to us the meaning of certain words, which though found in previous records were unintelligible. Thus the word Kulya vāpa occurs in the inscription of Laksmanasena. The word Nalena is common in inscriptions and it occurs in the Dhanaidaha Grant of Kumāragupta I. as Nālaka. Similarly the curious word Apavinchya is to be found in line 11 of the same grant. The extremely bad state of preservation of the Dhanāidaha Grant made it impossible for me to make out a new word correctly. But I am sure what I read as Nālaka sada (?) vi. chya is really Nālakamapavinchya. A comparison with the plate convinces me of the certainty of the reading. I may note in this con-

Ibid., pp. 120-121.
 Journal Asiat. Soc. Bengal, 1875, Part I, p. 12, and 1900, Part I, p. 64.
 Above vol. v, p. 461, pl. xx.

nection that the word Sadhanika is not a new word as Mr. Pargiter is apt to think. It occurs in the majority of copperplate grants in several forms, such as, Dausadhanika, Dausadhasādhanika, etc. Its meaning is not yet certain. In the copperplate grants this name is to be found along with those of other officers like Uparika, Antaranga. One of the new names of officials Kulavara, which occurs in the third and fourth grants, cannot be definitely translated as "referees" or "arbitrators." I read this word as Kulacaran in the fourth grant, but of course I must admit that I was wrong. About proper names: Brhac-catta would not bear comparison with modern Cattopadhyaya. In this connection I may note that the meaning of the word Cata seems to be definitely settled at Rai Bahadur Hiralal and Dr. J. P. Vogel are agreed on this point. In his article on the Sarangarh Plates of Mahasudeva Mr. Hiralal quotes some remarks of Dr. Vogel which are worth reproducing:---"On my first visit to the ancient hill state of Chamba (Panjab) I learnt that the head of a pargana there has the title of $Ch\bar{a}r$, which is evidently derived from the Sanskrit Chāta. The Chār collects villagers who have to do work (forced labour) on behalf of the State; he arranges for load carriers and supplies in case the Raja or some traveller visits his district. I have little doubt that the Chata of the copperplates is the same as the Chār of the Chamba State. In the Chamba Copperplates published in the Annual Report of the Archæological Survey (1902-03) I have therefore rendered the word by "district officer." It was clearly a privilege of importance that the head of the district was not allowed to interfere with the granted land; in other words, he was not allowed to collect labourers or to demand supplies etc. on behalf of the State."—*Epi. Ind.*, Vol. IX, p. 284, Note 10. Similarly Somaghosa (second grant, line 8), Vihitaghosa (4th grant, line 7), etc., cannot be taken as the progenitors of the modern Ghosas of Bengal, and Navasena is not a Kayastha of the Sena family. As Candragupta the Maurya cannot be taken to be the progenitor of the Guptas of the Vaidya caste, and Rsabhadatta (Usabhadatta) the Scythian to be the progenitor of the Dattas of the Kayastha caste, so Somaghosa and Nayasena cannot be said to be the forefathers of the Ghosas and Senas of Bengal. If we agree to do so, we shall have to admit that the Brahmana Carudatta was the forefather of the Vaidya and Kāyastha Dattas of Bengal!

Finally I must note that the language of the three grants edited by Mr. Pargiter is not so vague as that of the fourth grant. A comparison with the three other plates has enabled me to improve the reading of Mr. Stapleton's grant in many

points: -

(1) Mr. Pargiter has already noticed the superflucts uses of the word Ka in these four inscriptions. The presence of the seals together with the comparison of the three grants enabled him to read the name Vāraka with certainty. In the absence of the seal I thought that the name was Kavāraka. This is natural, as the previous word is usually written Anamodita and not Anamoditaka. Similarly in the absence of the seal in the other plates I believe no one could have read the name as Kavāraka in the first grant: In the fourth grant we have to read Jivadattas-tadanumoditaka Vārakamandale.

(2) In the 11th line we have to read Tadarhaha instead of Tadarham yatha. This word occurs in the three grants edited

by Mr. Pargiter.

(3) In the 12th line we have to read Yata etadabhyar-thanamupalabhya instead of Yatadhanadabhyarthanmupalabhya. The very phrase is to be found in the first grant (line 9) and the third grant (line 15).

(4) I have already stated that the word read by me as

Kulacaran is to be read Kulavaran.

(5) In the 16th line the reading is to be corrected into Krtya ksettra kulyavāpattrayam.

(6) In the 22nd line the first word is written Sadatām in-

stead of Sadattam.

(7) The reading of the date is to be corrected to 14 instead of 34. Dr. Bloch read the date as 14, but at that time I did not agree with him. I was of opinion that the forger of the grant has tried to stick to the 6th century forms both as to alphabet and numerals, but now I find that he has committed another mistake in using the 8th century form for 10 in an inscription which he wanted to be taken as a 6th century one, or possibly still earlier. I shall have to refer to this numeral several times in the next paragraph. It should be noted that the form of dental na in the word Supratikasvāminah is the 8th or 9th century form and not the earlier form. I had omitted this inadvertently in my first article.

(V) THE DATE OF THE GRANTS.

Only three of these four plates are dated, and in these the date is always expressed in numerals. The clue to the proper assignation of the dates of these inscriptions is probably to be found in the forms of numerals used in them. This part of the question may be taken in two different instalments. Firstly, the forms of the numerals used, and secondly, the assignation of dates. First of all, in two of these dates out of three we have the numeral for 10. When I edited Mr. Stapleton's grant in these pages, I was of opinion that the grant was issued in the 34th year of Samācāradeva, but as I have already noted above, the late Dr. Bloch was concurrent in opinion with

Mr. Pargiter and Dr. Hoernle about the interpretation of the symbol. These three scholars agree in taking this symbol to stand for 10. I am now convinced that they are correct, but at the same time it is not possible to assign these three inscriptions to the 6th century A.D. or any date before that. From the majority of Northern Indian inscriptions we can prove that the symbol for 10 from the dawn of Indian history to the 6th century A.D. has been the lateral Ma and no other form is tobe found among cognate inscriptions. The only exception to this is a solitary inscription found in Nepal. The date of this inscription is still doubtful, as it is dated in an era the initial year of which still remains to be definitely calculated. 1 Dr. Bühler in his masterly work on Indian Palæography has proved absolutely beyond doubt that the symbol for 10 during the first six centuries of the Christian era is the lateral Ma with very slight changes. It is only during the latter part of the 7th century that changes take place in the sign for this numeral. The sign which is used in these three dates is to befound in Nepalese inscriptions of the 8th century A.D. and not before that. In Northern Indian inscriptions of the first six centuries A.D. the lateral Ma denotes the numeral 10 and changes come over the numeral from the 6th to the 8th century These transition forms are to be found in the Valabhi copperplate grants, and they show that the form used in these inscriptions had gradually been evolved out of the older form; so by means of this datum, viz., the date of the inscription from Nepal in which this form of the symbol is to be found, it can be safely asserted that this form is a later one. As Dr. Kielhorn has shown in the case of the tripartite form of Ya, it is not safe to assign a definite limit to a particular form of a character or numeral on the basis of palæography only, but it is quite safe to assert that such and such form is earlier or later. Comparative terms are always used with reference to a particular period and locality. The gradual evolution of this symbol will be apparent from Dr. Buhler's tables.8 The only other noticeable form in the numerals used in these inscriptions is the symbol for 9 in the Grant of Gopacandra. It is unlike any of the well-known forms of that numeral to be found in Indian Inscriptions. In fact, the decipherment of this symbol is one of Mr. Pargiter's greatest successes. It resembles Dr. Buhler's Col. X to some extent. From the very first I was pretty doubtful about the reading of this symbol. I had the opportunity of examining the original, as Dr. Hoernle has since returned the plates to the Asiatic Society of Bengal, and I am quite convinced of the faultlessness of Dr. Fleet's ink impres-

Bendall's Journey to Nepal, p. 72, pl. VIII.

^{*} Epi. Ind., vol. iv., pp. 29-30.

* Indische Paleographie. Tafel ix, Cols. i—xiii.

sion. The second part of the question is far more difficult than the first. I believe that the time for the assignation of these dates has not arrived as yet. Though these three dates form a regular series, yet it is by no means certain that they belong to the same period or to a particular era. On the contrary, I believe that they are separate regnal years and have no connection with each other. Thus, Nagadeva, who held the province of Navyāvakāsika for Dharmmāditya, seems to have remained in that charge till the year 19 in the reign of Gopacandra. If these dates form a continual series the reign of Samācāradeva must fall between that of Dharmmāditya and Gopacandra. But we find another governor for Navyāvakāsika in the year 14, so it is evident that the dates are regnal years. The forger of these grants I believe had no idea of forming a consecutive. line of Kings. Dr. Hoernle's identification of the Emperor Dharmmāditya with Yasodharmman is purely tentative and has no basis. Similarly his identification of Gopacandra with Prince Govicandra or Gopicandra of Northern Bengal tradition is also tentative. There is absolutely no ground for this suggestion save the similarity in names.

(VI) THE IMPORTANCE OF THE GRANTS.

Finally the four plates-forged as they are-yield some valuable material for the construction of the History of Bengal during the dark period from the death of Harsavardhana to the rise of the Palas of Bengal. This period has now been shortened by the researches of the late Dr. Kielhorn and Mahamahopādhāya Haraprasād Sastrī. Synchronisms and slight mention have now enabled us to state definitely that the Pala empire rose in the middle of the 8th century A.D. and that the date of its rise must fall before the Gurjara conquest of Kanauj. It is now definitely settled that the initial year of Dharmmapāla's reign falls between 783 and 817 A.D.; so this dark period extends from 672 to 783 A.D. or a little over a century. Guptas of Magadha survived the transitory glory of the Sthanvisvara Kings. Of this line we have the definite date 672 A.D. for Adityasena, 2 and the genealogy is carried three generations further downward by the Deo-Banārak (Deva-Varanārka) Inscription of Jivitagupta II.⁸ For this period extending from 672 to 738 A.D. we have no definite data and the material supplied by the four copperplate grants comes in very handy. The most important fact is the use of genuine seals of the officials of the Gupta empire. As I have noticed above Dr. Bloch has already stated that the officials of the Gupta empire

8 Ibid., p. 215.

¹ Memoirs A.S.B., vol. iii, No. I, pp. 3-4. 2 Fleet's Gupta Inscriptions, p. 210.

or their descendants continued to enjoy a certain amount of territorial independence centuries after the dissolution of the ancient empire of the Gupta. The seals of these three copperplates show that the officer in charge of the Varakamandala had carved out a small principality for himself and that his descendants continued to enjoy it for three or four centuries. They do not seem to have laid claim to royalty as is usual in such cases, but on the other hand continued under the same designation as their founder. This is a parallel case with that of the Native States of India which sprang up after the dissolution of the Mughal empire and the rulers of which, though independent Princes in reality, continued under their old rank and titles in the majority of cases. It is possible to assert on this data and the evidence of the seal of the Tippera Grant alluded to by Dr. Bloch that after the dissolution of the ancient Gupta empire officers in charge of the provinces gradually carved out small principalities for themselves and their descendants. We have clearer examples in the case of the Senapatis of Valabhi and the Parivrājaka Mahārājas. In Bengal the Aphsad Inscription of Adityasena provides us with a long line of local rulers, who most probably were descendants from the ancient Gupta Emperors. Besides the Guptas of Magadha, the stray Kings like Narendragupta, we have no other data for the History of Bengal after the fall of Harsavardhana.

The seals of the Faridpur copperplates and that of the Tippera one show that the smaller principalities which came into existence after the dissolution of the ancient Gupta empire survived the downfall of the Kings of Sthvanisvara. Thus in Bengal only we have two separate dynasties descended from the officials of the ancient Gupta empire who continued to rule till the rise of the Palas. The case is very clear in the case of the Tippera Grant, but in the case of the Faridpur Grants it is different. In the Faridpur Grants we find that a genuine seal of an official of the ancient Gupta empire has been used to seal a land-grant instead of that of the Prince during whose reign the grant was made, or that of the person who made the At the same time, it is interesting to note that the seal belonged to the officer in charge of the district in which the land granted is situated. In that case it may be safely asserted that a descendant of the officer in charge of the Varakamandala of the ancient Gupta empire continued to hold sovereign rights over the whole or part of that district, otherwise the forger would not have sealed the grants with his seal. Most probably Dharmmāditya, Gopacandra and Samācāradeva were great Kings according to the tradition then current in Bengal, and the forger of these plates has referred to them by name only owing to the absence of other details concerning It is to be noted also that he has used regnal years instead of definite dates in these plates. It may be that the

plates were forged after the rise of the Pala empire, as it is during the time of the Palas only that regnal years were extensively used in Eastern Indian Inscriptions instead of definite dates in a well-known era. Finally I wish to note that the seals used in these grants are later in date than the clay seals discovered at Basarh. In the Basarh seals we have the Eastern variety form of the lingual Sa in the majority of cases, but in the Faridpur seals the form used is that of the Western variety, that is, a rectangular letter with a straight horizontal cross bar and without any traces of acute angles.

Recently the Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., of the St. Xavier's College, Calcutta, has sent me a copperplate, which though of a much later date resembles the Faridpur Grants in one point.

The inscription opens as follows.

TEXT.

(1) Om! Paramabhattāraketyādi Rājavikatāditya (Vikramāditya) devānāmatītarājye varsa = (2) Satatrayodasābda-sattrimsatatamādhikam phālguna krenapancamyām Bhima-vāsa—(3) re iti likhamane yatranke samvat 1336 phalguna dine 5 bhaume Sri -(4) Pa(m)cakukudasatāvāsita (samāvāsita) Vijayakatake Paramabhattaraka Paramesvara Parama - (5) mahesvara Nagavamkodbhava Arirājagopigovinda Rājādata (?) varsacari—(6) Rāja Srīma Asakandradeva Mahārāja Vijayadeva Sāndhivigrahika Srī Ni. (7) Mahattaka brī Somesvara Pratihāra brī Harihara Aksapatalika Thakkura śrī Akhatanāga (?). (8) Bhāndāgārika Khaqivitta Sovanivitta Kasthivitta Sadhanika Paniyaga. (9) -rika Dandaka Dandanāyaka Kottapāla Dvāraka Paurika Paramakāryamantri. (10) Samupagatāšesa rājapurusām Rāja Rājanyaka 🛾 Rājaputra Rājāmātya.

Thus it will be seen that some of the officials are mentioned by name in lines 6 and 7, while the titles only of the rest are enumerated at length. I have reasons to suppose that this plate also is a forgery, and I expect to publish it shortly in another paper.

25. Elucidation of certain passages in I-tsing.

By Kashi P. Jayaswal, B.A., Davis Chinese Scholar (Oxon.), Barrister-at-Law.

By bringing to light the work of I-tsing, Japanese scholars have rendered great help towards the stupendous task of restoring Hindu History. I-tsing's Records afford glimpses into the social condition of our country towards the end of the seventh century (671—695 A.C.). This great monk, no less famous in the Buddhist world of China than Hiuen Thsang with whom we are more familiar, was pre-eminently a scholar and the best Sanskritist amongst the Chinese pilgrims whose writings have yet reached us. His stay at the centres of learning in the Hindu colonies of Sumatra, and ten years' study at the university of Nalanda under the greatest professors of the time, gave him an intimate knowledge of the methods of the teaching of Sanskrit and the complete curriculum in vogue in those days, and enabled him to describe them in faithful detail. The unique treatment of the subject forms the 35th chapter of The Records of Buddhist Practices in India.

The chapter is so full of important materials for the student of the Hindu social history, that it is eminently desirable to have every word in it made perfectly clear. To get at the correct meaning of Chinese texts is sometimes inconceivably difficult. Dr. Takakusu, the learned translator of I-tsing's Records, had to encounter this difficulty in the course of his English rendering. Like a true scholar, he has scrupulously indicated the obscure passages by foot-notes attached to the body of his masterly translation (Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1896). These passages occurring in the 35th chapter on "The Methods of Learning in the West," have specially attracted my attention on account of the importance of the subject-matter.

On page 178 there occurs the passage:-

"They (the Scholastics who had defeated their opponents) 1 receive grants of land, and are advanced to a high rank [their famous names are, as a reward, written in white on their lofty gates]."

1 The preceding passage runs as follows:—
"When they are refuting heretic doctrines all their opponents become tongue-tied and acknowledge themselves undone. Then the sound of their fame makes the five mountains (of India) vibrate, and their renown flows, as it were, over the four borders" (borders = 1900).

The passage which I have marked with brackets is a rendering of the original:—

賞素高門

The last character $m \ell n$, primarily meaning 'doors,' 'gate,' has been, it seems, the source of puzzle to translators. Mr. Fujishima, who translated some parts of the work into French,' took it to signify "the court" and the whole sentence he would render by:—

"which (the rank) gives them access to the court" ['qui leur donne accès à la cour'].

To make mên mean 'royal court' could neither be warranted by its use in general literature nor the present context. Those who received grants of land, presumably, like the candidates for the Government Service, had already been to "the King's Court to lay down before it the sharp weapon (of their abilities)," and would hardly be in want of the "access to the court." Further, there is no character in the text which would mean "access," nor mên has been anywhere found to signify "Court."

Dr. Takakusu takes mên in its literal sense; 高 門 'lofty gates.' But, then, he has to detach the first character shang from the sentence and translate it by the adverbial phrase "as reward," while legitimately it is a verb meaning to give, to confer, to bestow. To make sense, he supplies a complete sentence, viz. "their famous names are written." The second character * su, in its common meaning, 'simple,' 'white,' adds to the confusion; and an unintelligible rendering, "their famous names written in white on their lofty gates" is the result. To write in white, and that on what gates? On the gates of the house of the scholastic, or of the king, or on the gates of some temple, or of the city-walls? If by | | mên really some gates were meant, they would have been specified. Again, as far as we know, there was no such practice as to inscribe names of scholars on any gates. Dr. Takakusu, however, avows that the text is not clear to him and that his rendering is only tentative.

If we take | | men in the classical sense to mean 'school,' system,' we would not be, perhaps, far from what I-tsing

¹ The Journal Asiatique, 1888.

² I-teing, p. 177.

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intended to convey. The classical meaning of mên as 'school' or 'system' can be illustrated by the following references:—

- (1) Speaking of the martial music composed by the famous 出 Yu, Confucius asked his disciples: 奚為於丘之門 'what has it to do with my system?' THE ANALECTS, Bk. xi, Chap. 14, 1.
- (2) In the prefatory paragraph of the 申 庸, THE DOCTRINE OF THE MEAN, 孔 門, Khung mên means the 'Confucian School,' Legge, Classics (1893), Vol. I, p. 384.

The second character $\gtrsim su$, interchanges with $\lesssim so$, 'to search,' 'to study,' in the Classics. Chu, the celebrated commentator, writing on the Chapter xi, i, THE DOCTRINE OF THE MEAN, takes the character $\gtrsim su$ to read and mean as $\lesssim so$ (according to Legge, hsi, but according to Giles, so'), 'to study' (vide Legge, Classics, 1897, Vol. I, p. 391, n. 11). It is easy to see that the two words being alike in origin, form and sound, as in several well-known similar cases, interchanged with each other. The character, both in I-tsing's text and the classical passage referred to above, yields a perfectly sensible meaning only when we adopt its reading as given by Chu, who, it must be remembered, is not a mean authority.

Further justification in accepting $\approx su$ as denoting 'study,' 'research,' is found in the author's characteristic fondness for the classics, as amply borne out by references in his Records of the Buddhist Practices.

¹ Giles's Dictionary, p. 1011, No. 10183.
2 See also C. Goodrich's Dictionary, pp. 177, 178; and Williams's Syllabie Dictionary, pp. 815 and 816, where so is written as su and the meaning given is 'to search into.'

Now taking 門 men and 素 su (=so) in their classical uses, the text 賞素 高 門 could be translated thus:—

"they give dissertations upon the Great Systems";

that is, those learned laymen, having vanquished their philosophical or theological opponents, received grants of land from the State in recognition of their learning, and having thus attained the rank of authorities, expounded the great systems of philosophy in their own way. This is probably a description of the Dig-vijayi Panditas—a line of the "world-conquering" scholastics culminating in the great Sankara-Ācharya.

Just a few lines above (p. 177), speaking in respect of the candidates for the Civil Service who presented themselves in the House of Debate to prove their 'wonderful eleverness,'

I-tsing uses the expression in the chung has, which has been translated by Dr. Takakusu as "they raise their seats," and which, according to I-tsing's commentator Kásyapa, refers to 'the Indian custom' of taking the seat of the vanquished opponent and adding it to that of the victorious disputant. Whatever be the value of Kásyapa's information, chung has

can not mean 'doubling seats.' his is the Sanskrit trinaasanam ((क्याप्त्रम्)), the familiar piece of mat to sit upon;
and chung means 'heavy,' 'important,' 'grave demeanour.'
Chung has never been used in the sense of 'doubling' or
'raising,' and the passage following, viz. "and seek to prove
their wonderful cleverness," indicates that they had not yet
defeated their opponents but were going to do so; therefore,
even accepting Kasyapa's authority as to the existence of the
alleged custom, chung hsi could not be intended to mean "they
raised their seats."

By adhering to the literal meaning of the characters, we arrive at a very sensible rendering:—

"they, in a grave demeanour, sat on the asanas."

If hsi be not treated as a verb, as it has been in the above translation, chung will have to be taken as a verb and the phrase to mean "they regarded the asanas as being important," but the context would give preference to the former translation, as when they were going 'to prove their wonderful eleverness,' they would naturally 'sit dignified'; and I-tsing, an ultra-mannerist, would characteristically notice the impressive demeanour.

¹ See the note on p. 309.

² This rendering is suggested to me by Dr. E. Ross.

26. Phosphorus in Indian Food Stuffs.

By DAVID HOOPER, F.C.S.

One of the most important discoveries of recent times is the relation that has been traced between the use of milled rice and the disease known as epidemic dropsy or beri beri. The investigations of Drs. Stanton, Fraser, Highet and Braddon have shown that the lack of phosphorus in cleaned or milled rice is the predisposing cause of the disease. By experimenting on fowls with rice of varying quality it was demonstrated that polyneuritis (similar to the epidemic dropsy of man) was developed when milled rice was used, but not when rice simply husked was given. By chemical analysis of the rice it was possible to determine its disease-provoking or disease-resisting property, and it was shown by control experiments that rice containing 0.469 per cent. of phosphorus, in the form of phosphoric anhydride, was a healthy diet for fowls; but rice containing only 0.277 per cent. of phosphoric anhydride developed polyneuritis within a few weeks. Since the publication of this theory in 1909 further researches have been made in the East, and they have tended to confirm the importance of phosphorus as an essential constituent in dietetic preparations.

In 1910, Major E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S., was placed on special duty to investigate the outbreak of beri-beri in Bengal, and I was appointed to assist him by analysing the samples of rice and food grains collected during the enquiry. Major Greig's preliminary report has been issued as No. 45 (New Series) of the Scientific Memoirs by Officers of the Medical and Sanitary Departments of the Government of India, and is entitled "Epidemic Dropsy in Calcutta." It is on the present occasion considered desirable to deal with the chemical aspect of the subject in a separate paper, by quoting the analyses of a large number of rice samples from different parts of the country, and showing the amount of phosphates in other food

substances commonly consumed in India.

Rice being the staple food of many eastern countries it is important that its constituents should be fully studied. In the Agricultural Ledger No. 5 of 1908-09, analyses are given of one hundred and sixty samples from various localities in India, and the proportion of protein, fat, carbohydrates, fibre and ash are recorded. All the samples of rice were husked

or milled, and a difference was noted between those samples that had been simply husked and those that had been polished after the husking. The variation in either series was attributed to high or low cultivation. Another paper on the "Composition of the Rice Plant," by W. P. Kelley and A. R. Thompson, has been published as a Bulletin (No. 21) of the Hawaii Agricultural Station.

When paddy is converted into rice for the market, the chaffy husk is removed by wetting, drying and beating, and the grain that is left is enveloped in a natural layer rich in oil, protein and ash. The rice grain is further prepared or polished by subjecting it once or twice to a milling process which removes the outer layer of nutritious elements and leaves a smooth, white, starchy grain of elegant appearance. The removal of protein, oil and especially the phosphatic ash, reduces the food value of the rice, and renders the grain liable, when used as the sole diet, to induce epidemic dropsy.

The following tables represent the phosphoric value, calculated as phosphoric anhydride, of rices from various provinces. The determinations were made according to the molybdic acid

method adopted in Agricultural laboratories.

The analyses of husked rice grains before passing through a mill were made on selected samples These are typical of of what are known as unpolished rices:—

		$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{sh}$	$\mathbf{P_{a}O}_{5}$
Calcutta Mill 1		1.7	·80
Calcutta Mill 2		1.8	•58
Rangoon	•••	1.3	·61
Bezwada	••	1.2	.59
Madras		2.1	.69
Madras, red		1.6	·67
Average		1.6	•65

The next table consists of miscellaneous samples collected in Calcutta, and used in connection with experiments with fowls, or forwarded from districts where beri-beri existed:—

		\mathbf{Ash}	$\mathbf{P_2O}_{5}$
Bengal, fermented		.72	·37
Bengal, "Bank tulsi"	• •	· 7 0	· 3 3
Calcutta, once milled		1.0	.50
Calcutta, twice milled		1.0	·45
Calcutta, once milled		1.0	•43
Calcutta, twice milled	• •	1.0	.38
Rangoon rice	• •	· 63	•31
Rangoon, extracted	• •	· 65	•35

•			Ash	P ₂ O ₅
Rangoon (Commis	sariat)		·60	.35
Rangoon, once mi			· 9 0	· 49
Khulna	• • .		·85	·43
Mymensingh	• •		1.05	.39
Barisal	• •		1.10	· 4 6
Pabna	• •	••	•90	·3 4
Sylhet 1			1.70	·35
Sylhet 2	• •	•	-90	.25
Sylhet 3	• •		·70	·22
Average	••		.88	.36

In the above table it will be observed that the highest phosphorus content is found in the grains only partially milled or polished, where portions of the outer aleurone layer are left. It is invariably the custom in rice mills to subject the grain to a further polishing process in order to remove, as far as possible, the whole of the outer layer so as to produce the much appreciated white or table rice.

Separate figures need not be given of a long series of samples of "balam," "atap" and "desi" rices collected by Major Greig from houses in Calcutta where cases of epidemic dropsy had occurred. "Balam" rices on the whole were superior, and contained an average of 0.41 per cent. of phosphoric anhydride, while the "Desi" rices contained a mean of 0.29 per cent. The whole of the series of 35 cases is thus summarized:—

		Ash	$\mathbf{P_2O_5}$
Maximum	• •	 1.33	· 49
Minimum	• •	 . 6 0	·26
Average	• •	 .90	·362

Samples of rice used in the Bengal Jails, supplied by the Inspector-General, had the following composition:—

		\mathbf{Ash}	P_2O_5
Arrah, cleaned	• •	80	·36
Arrah, uncleaned		1.06	.48
Berhampur, red		86	.39
Berhampur, white	• •	1.13	· 4 8
Cuttack	• •	1.06	·44
Jessore	•	73	·25
Midnapore		86	· 2 8
Ranchi	• •	1.00	.38
Sambalpur	• •	73	25

*		Ash	P ₂ O _b
Purneah		1.00	-32
Presidency	• •	2.20	•50
Average		1.03	·37

For the sake of comparison, a collection was specially made of samples of rice sold in the Madras Presidency, and these were chemically examined for their phospho us value.

MAD	RAS	RICES.		
			Ash	$P_{s}O_{b}$
Sirmani, a fine rice			.9	39
Berhampur, Ganjam			1.1	40
Nellore, superior			•6	.27
Nellore, ordinary	• •	• •	.8	·35
Bezwada, superior		••	1.3	· 4 7
,, inferior			1.2	· 49
Tanale, inferior			•8	.39
Cocanada, superior	• •	• •	•7	· 33
Kalingapatam, superior		• .	.7	36
,, inferior			•9	•34
Jagganadum, superior		•••	1.0	·51
,, medium			1.0	· 44
,, inferior		• •	1.2	•49
Dandiwanum, superior			.7	·30
.;, medium			1.6	· 44
,, inferior		••	$2 \cdot 2$	· 47
Chingleput, No. 1			1.0	· 4 5
,, No. 2		••	1.8	•43
Average	••	• •	1.1	· 4 0

In these samples those which are regarded as superior on account of the fineness and milk-white appearance, and which realize a higher market value, are as a rule comparatively deficient in phosphorus. In Madras a large quantity of rice is imported from Rangoon. It is a coarser rice than the local varieties, and although it is fairly rich in phosphorus there is a prejudice against its use, and it is consumed chiefly by coolies and emigrants. The rice in which the lowest amount of phosphorus was detected was a sample from Bangalore. It was imported as "Patna" rice from England, where it had been re-milled. The grain was pure white and pearly, but contained only 0.21 per cent. of phosphoric anhydride.

In the following tables the rices of Patna, and Purulia, where they are not cleaned by modern machinery, are arranged

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according to their market values, and it will be observed that the amount of phosphorus is almost uniformly in inverse ratio to the price of the samples.

PATNA RICES.

		Per l	Md.	Ash	P _s O _s
Samjeera		Rs.	16	-8	•26
Bansmati I		,,	7-4	•9	.33
Kari bank	••	"	6-10	.7	·29
Arua I		,,	5	.8	.33
Dhania Arua		,,	5	·7	·32
Ramsal		,,	5 .	1.3	· 4 7
Usna	• •	,,	5	1.2	·41
Bansmati II		,,	4-12	.86	· · 32
Arua II	••	"	4-11	.93	·31
Kela sar		,,	4-11	1.06	•34
Bansmati III		,,	4-7	.80	·33
Selha I		,,	4-7	1.00	·37
Kaysore		,,	4-3-3	.93	.38
Selha II		,,	4	.93	.39
Sirhanti		,,	3-10	1.13	·47
Karhamia (red)	• •	"	3-7-10	1.06	.42
Average			• •	·88	·35

PURULIA RICES.

		Per :	Md.	Ash	P_2O_6
Badshah bog (I)		Rs.	8	.80	·32
,, ,, (IÍ)		,,	6	1.20	•37
Ramsal		,,	6	1.00	· 49
Kulam Kati		,,	5-12	·86	.39
Chandan sal		,,	5	1.06	· 3 8
Dhusree		,,	3-10	1.00	•36
Rashi (red)		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	3-5	2.86	·46
Kawya (red)	• •	,,	2-14	1.40	·55
Average				1.27	41

It has been shown in the above analyses that unmilled rice contains on an average of 0.65 per cent. of phosphoric anhydride, while milled rice contains about 38 per cent. The process of milling or polishing removes a substance of great value rich in phosphates which requires some notice. The polish-

ing or bran which amounts to 8 to 10 per cent. of rice is called "Koorah" in Bengal, "Thavudu" in Madras, and "Dadak" in Java. It is used for feeding fowls and cattle, as bait for fish, and is largely exported to the continent on account of the oil it contains. The analysis of a sample from a Calcutta mill is appended.

Moisture		8.30
Fat		24.04
Proteids		13.56
Carboh ydrates		33.47
Fibre		6.88
Ash		13.75
	_	

100.00

Containing

Nitrogen .. 2·17 Phosphoric anhydride 3·36 Silica 7·50

As might be expected, rice bran contains the phosphates of rice in a highly concentrated form. With regard to the organic compound containing phosphorus there have been several investigations, but Sozuki, Yoshimura and Takaishi have proved (Bull. Coll. Agric. Tokyo, 1907, 495-572) that 85 per cent, of the phosphorus in the bran of rice is present as phytin. Phytin has been described by Posternak (Compt. rend., 1903, 136, 1678—80) as a phospho-organic acid, CH₅O₅P, which differs from phosphoric acid by the elements of formaldehyde. Lecithin, another organic compound found in seeds by Töpler. Schulze and others, occurs in smaller amount, representing only 1 to 7 per cent. of the total phosphorus. Phytin or anhydroxymethylene-diphosphoric acid is obtained by treating the powdered substance with 0.2 or 0.3 per cent. hydrochloric acid, pressing out the liquor, neutralizing with magnesia, and purifying by reprecipitation the calcio-magnesium derivative. Another method is to precipitate the acid solution by means of alcohol. Fraser and Stanton (Lancet, Dec. 17, 1910, 1755) have recently shown that the addition of rice polishings to a diet of white rice is an effective preventive of the development of polyneuritis in fowls. Working in the light of what is known on phytin, they further prove that the substances contained in the polishing which are effective in preventing the disease are not precipitated from the hydrochloric acid solution on the addition of the alcohol, but are retained in the filtrate from the phytin. The essential portion comprises 16 per cent. or less by weight of rice polishings, or 1.6 per cent. of the original unpolished grain.

Further research will be necessary to determine the nature of the phosphated compound soluble in alcohol which possesses such vital importance in the feeding value of the grain. Resenheim and Kajiura (Journ. Physiol., 1908, 36—53) state that there is in rice an absence of gliadin or alcohol soluble protein, and glutenin or alcohol insoluble protein, both of which substances are necessary for the formation of gluten. By extracting rice and rice bran with alcohol, I was able to separate phosphoric acid and nitrogen, but in a very small proportion compared with the amount present in the original substances. It has been suggested that the phosphated compound is of the nature of the lipoids found in the brain, spinal column and other animal organs.

Wheat and Flour.—Samples of wheat and flour were next examined, to discover what proportion of phosphorus is removed in the process of milling, compared with rice.

Five samples of locally available wheat grains were found to have the following amounts of ash and phosphoric anhydride:

				Ash	PO_{5}
1.	• •	• •		$2^{\cdot}1$	·74
2.	••	• •		$2\cdot 0$.	.80
3.	• •			1.7	•71
4.				1.46	· 61
5.	• •	• •	• •	1.26	.59
Average		••		1.7	.69

The agents of one of the largest flour mills in Calcutta supplied me with a series of samples of genuine flour and other products derived from wheat for purposes of analysis. The following grades were examined:—

Milia Brances Mete eve		\mathbf{Ash}	P_2O_5
Flour No. 1	• •	· 5 3	·20
Flour No. 2	• •	.23	·21
Flour No. 3	• •	•53	.22
Soojee (large)	• •	.60	•22
Soojee (small)	• •	· 6 0	· 26
Atta B	• •	·53	·21
,, No. 2	• •	60	$\cdot 32$
,, No. 4	••	1.13	·59

The last named approaches the composition of the entire grain, and is therefore of greater nourishing value than the finer flours.

Nine samples of bazaar attas, collected from various houses in Calcutta during Major Greig's enquiry, afforded an average of 0.68 per cent. of ash and 0.25 per cent. of phosphoric anhydride, showing that they were of the usual composition and not adulterated.

At the Seventh International Congress of Applied Chemistry, (London, 1909), F. Vuafiart read a paper on the composition of wheat, in which he showed that the phosphoric anhydride varied from 0.759 to 0.988 per cent., in entire wheat, and from 0.197 to 0.283 in the flour. Sixty-six parts are contained in the starch, 13.8 in purified gluten, 2.4 parts in the ether-alcohol extract of the gluten, and 17.8 parts in the wash waters. From these figures the average composition of wheat flour in Europe is similar to that of wheat flour in India.

Barley.—Three samples of barley (Hordeum vulgare) show a considerable difference in the amount of phosphorus; they contain according to the degree of husking they have been subjected to:—

100000 10		\mathbf{Ash}	P_sO_b
Unpolished grain	••	 3.4	.94
Barley, husked		 1.3	65
Pearl barley		 2.9	

Other instances of the composition of Indian cereal grains are here quoted:—

		Ash	P_2O_5
Bajri (Pennisetum typhoideum)		4.5	1.03
11 11 11		2.5	·78
Juar (Andropogon Sorghum)		1.2	·70
Marua (Eleusine coracana)	• •	3.0	68

Pulse.—The pulses constitute a class of food-stuffs which are rich in phosphoric acid. Pigeon pea (Cajanus indicus), a pulse fed to pigeons, is a healthy diet, and no cases of neuritis have been known to occur when this is habitually given. The Marwaris are in the habit of employing various pulses as mung, besan and dal, and they are generally free from epidemic dropsy when their neighbours, the rice eaters, are attacked. The combination of dal with rice is a convenient means of increasing the phosphates in the diet, and corrects the deficiency usually found in the polished grain. The following analyses of pulses are recorded.

	Ash	$P_{s}O_{s}$
Arhar (Cajanus indicus)	4.0	·86
Besan (Pisum sativum)	3.2	·84
Mung or dal (Phaseolus radiatus)	$3\cdot 2$	·95
" "	4.3	1.17
Papar (A preparation of dal)	6.5	·85.
Lentils (Lens esculenta)	$2\cdot 2$.75
Soy (Glycine hispida)	5.0	1.20
Goa beans (Psophocarpus tetragonolobus) 4 ·2	1.35

In addition to the pulses, the Marwaris of Calcutta consume large quantities of leguminous and other green pods which are

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imported from Rajputana for their special use. These beans are of great nutritive value as will be seen from their analyses made on the air-dried samples as received:—

	Ash	P_2O_5
Kair (Capparis aphylla)	4.2	.57
Sangar (Prosopis spicigera)	4.1	·5 4
Gourphali (Cyamopsis psoralioides)	8.1	·76
Motha ka phali (Phaseolus sp)	5.5	1.10

With regard to the amount of phosphorus in foods in general, two papers have appeared in foreign scientific journals. "The Distribution of phosphorus in Foods" by M. Balland (Compt. rend., 1906, 143, 969—970), and "The Quantity and Distribution of Phosphorus in some food stuffs" by W. Heubner and W. Reeb (Arch. Exp.-Pathol. u. Pharmak., 1908, 265—272). The papers deal with a wide range of articles of European consumption, and the results show that phosphorus is found to be associated with nitrogen in constituting a nutritious or poor food-stuff. In all future analyses of dietetic articles it will be desirable to estimate the amount of phosphoric anhydride.

The phosphorus value of Indian food-stuffs, as far as I am aware, has not been recorded in any scientific work, and in order to complete this paper several determinations are tabulated for reference. They are classified under animal foods, farinaceous foods, vegetables, nuts and fruits, and represent articles of diet consumed both by Europeans and Indians.

$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{s}\mathbf{h}$	P_8O_6
5.0	1.50
1.3	·61
3.7	.56
1.4	.58
1.0	· 49
2.0	.44
2·1	· 42
4.0	•56
1.5	·58
1.6	•21
1.1	·18
•8	· 28
2.7	.33
·8	.06
2.7	•22
6.8	96
4.0 ~	-70
2.0	2 0
	5·0 1·3 3·7 1·4 1·0 2·0 2·1 4·0 1·5 1·6 1·1 ·8 2·7 ·8 2·7 6·8 4·0

		Ash	P_2O_5
Supari (Areca Catechu)		1.2	·56
Mushroom (Pleurotus cretaceus)		7.5	1.82
,, (Lentinus exilis)	• • •	1.2	-32
Edible fern (Asplenium esculent	tum)	2.1	.25
Sag (Amaranthus gangeticus)	•	1.3	-29
1) 1) 1)	boiled	1.2	•24
Beans (Vigna Catiang)	,,	1·1	·19
Karela (Momordica Charantia)	••	5.8	.27
Kumra lal (Cucurbita maxima)	,,,	2.7	·21
Patral (Trichosanthes dioica)	,,	2.0	·10 ·
Cucumber, sliced	• •	1.2	·08
Plantain		1.0	·14
Papaya		1.1	·13
Pineapple		.6	.06
Mango		1.0	.05
Guava cheese		•5	.07
Edible bird's nest		6.0	.06

27. The Waqf of Moveables.

By The Hon. Dr. A. Al-Ma'MUN SUHRAWARDY, Barrister-at-Law.

PREFACE.

The subject of this paper has been a fruitful source of controversy among jurists in all ages in all countries under Muslim Law. Elsewhere I have traced in detail the history of this controversy in the various countries of Islam. Here I shall content myself with merely indicating the conflicting decisions on the point to be found in the Indian Law Reports: Khajah Hossein Ali v. Shahzadi Hazrah Begum (1869), 12 W.R., 344; Fatima Bibi v. Ariff Ismailji Bham (1881), 9 C.L.R., 66; Kaleloola v. Nascerudeen (1894), 18 Mad. 201; Abu Savid Khan v. Bakar Ali (1901), I.L.R., 24 All. 190; Sakina Khanum v. Laddan Sahiba (1902), 2 C.L.J., 218; Civil Rule No. 51 of 1902, unreported (Rangoon, 1903); Mofazzul Karim v. Mohammed (1905), 2 C.L.J., 166; Kulsom Bibi v. Golam Hossein Cassim Ariff (1905), 10 C.W.N., 449; Banubi v. Narsingrao (1906), I.L.R., 31 Bom. 250; Mohammed Ismail Ariff v. Ibrahim Gholam Ariff, unreported (Rangoon, 1907); Bai Fatmabai v. Golam Hossein (1907), 9 Bom. L.R., 1337; Yusuf Saratera v. Mollah Mahmood, unreported (334 of 1907) decision of the Cal. H. C.; Kadir Ibrahim Rowther v. Mahomed Rahamadulla Rowther (1909), 33 Mad., 118.

For the purpose of this paper I do not claim to have laid under contribution all the works extant on Muslim Law. Besides those works from which I have made the excerpts, there are others which support my view, e.g. the Fatāwá Anqarawiyyah, p. 704, ed. Cairo, Minhāj al-Ţālibīn, Fatḥ al-Qarīb, etc.

¹ History of Muslim Law (Tagore Law Lectures 1911).

A careful perusal of this paper—the result of considerable labour and research—containing excerpts from works of the highest authority, will, I venture to hope, leave no doubt in the minds of the readers about the validity of the waqf of moveables, including money, shares in companies, securities, stock, etc. In order to follow the historical development of this branch of Muslim Law, the reader would do well to peruse the extracts in the order indicated in the Bibliography in Appendix I. The relevancy of some of the extracts (apparently irrelevant to the matter in issue) will, no doubt, be obvious to the practical lawyer, if not to the lay reader.

I have kept the English translation as close to the original as possible, even at some sacrifice of the English. Passages in the translation placed within crotchets do not occur in the Arabic original, and are inserted merely for explanatory reasons. Similarly, passages in the original enclosed within crotchets have been omitted in the translation, to avoid repetition or the introduction of irrelevant matter. The system of transliteration adopted by me is, with slight modifications, that recommended by the Fourth Congress of Orientalists.

I take this opportunity of expressing my sincere thanks to Muhammad 'Ali Chevky' Bey, and to Zaimzadé Hasan Fehmy Bey, grandson and First Secretary respectively to Field-Marshal Ghāzī Ahmad Mukhtār Pasha, late Ottoman High Commissioner in Egypt, for obtaining access for me to several important Libraries in the Ottoman Empire, and also for procuring for me the Fatwas of the Grand Mufti of Egypt, and of the Mufti of Alexandria; to Shams al-Ulama Shavkh Mahmud Gilani for the Fatwa from his brother, the celebrated Mujtahid of Karbala; to Lt.-Col. Phillott for affording me every facility for research and placing at my disposal the Library of the Board of Examiners which is rich in the possession of some unique manuscripts on Muslim Law; and lastly, to my friend and colleague Mr. R. F. Azoo, for assistance in the elucidation of several obscure and difficult passages in the original.

In a subsequent issue of the Journal of this Society I hope to give a translation of the well-known treatise on the subject of this paper by the celebrated Shaykh al-Islām, Mufti Abu'l-Su'ūd, a manuscript copy of which I have just discovered in Constantinople. I am indebted to the Hon. Mr. G. H. C.

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Ariff for having arranged to procure for me a transcript of that unique manuscript.

THE BAR LIBRARY:
August, 1911.

A. AL-MA'MUN SUBBAWARDE.

RULES FOR THE GUIDANCE OF THE JUDGE.

I. The following extract from the commentary of the *Hidāyah* by Ibn Shahnah is quoted by the great doctor al-Biri at

the beginning of his commentary on al-Ashbah:-

When the accuracy of a hadīth (saying of the Prophet) is accepted and it is found to be contrary to the doctrine of the madh-hab (school), practice should be in accordance with the hadīth, and thenceforward it shall be considered as his (Abū Ḥanīfah's) madh-hab and his sectary will not be excluded from being considered a Hanafi on account of his acting in accordance with the hadīth. For verily the following is a genuine dictum of Abū Ḥanīfah:—"When a hadīth is proved to be accurate it is my madh-hab." Ibn 'Abd-al-Barr reports this dictum from Abū Ḥanīfah and other Imāms. Imām al-Sha'rānī also reports this from the four Imāms.

..... "The signs of mercy": the difference of opinion of the Imams affords latitude and facility to the people; as is laid down at the beginning of the Tātārkhāniyyah. This is an allusion to the celebrated hadīth on the lips of men, viz., "The difference of opinion of my people is a mercy from God '' : Said the Prophet of God : "Whatever you have been given in the Book of God, you must There is no excuse for anyone for abandoning If it is not in the Book of God, then my previous practice. But if there is no practice of mine, then what my companions have said. For verily my companions are like the stars of the heavens; whichever of them you follow, you will be guided aright; and the divergence of opinion of my companions is a blessing to you"... Al-Suyuti reports from 'Umar b. 'Abd-al-'Aziz that he used to say: "It would not have pleased me if the companions of Muhammad had not differed. For had they not differed there would have been no concession, facility or indulgence (rukheah). (Radd-al-Muhtar, vol. i, p. 70. Ed. Const.).

II. It is known that divergence of opinion is one of the signs of meroy. Thus, the greater the difference the greater the bless-sing, as they (the Ulema) have declared. (Durr al-Mukhtär, vol. i, p. 70. Ed. Const.):

The rule guiding the Muffi in delivering his fatude is that he should deliver fatude positively regarding matters about which

our jurists are unanimous in the "Conspicuous Reports"; but opinions differ regarding matters about which they differ. The most correct view is that stated in the Sirājiyyah and other works, viz., that the Mufti should give fatua according to the dictum of the Imam absolutely, then according to the dictum of the second, then that of the third, then according to that of Zufar and Hasan b. Ziyad. In the Hawi-al-Qudsi, the strength of the argument is regarded as the correct criterion. When there is conflict between two views declared to be correct.—It is laid down in the chapter on Waqi of the Bahr al-Rā'iq and other books that when there are two "correct views" regarding any particular question, it is lawful to give judgment and

tatwa according to either of them.

In the beginning of the Mudmarat it is stated: The signs of the fatwa are his (the jurist's) saying, 'in accordance therewith is the fatwa'; 'with it is given the fatwa'; 'it we follow'; 'on it is the reliance'; 'in accordance with it is the practice to-day'; 'in accordance with it is the practice of the people'; 'this is the correct view,' or 'the most correct,' or 'the most obvious,' or 'the most likely,' or 'the most reasonable,' or the select,' and such like expressions stated in the supercommentary of al-Bazdawi. End of the quotation. master al-Ramli says in his collection of fatwas: Some expressions are more emphatic than others. Thus the word fatwa is more emphatic than the word "correct," "most correct," "most likely," etc. The expression "with it is given the fatwa'' is more emphatic than "the fatwa is in accordance therewith." "Most correct" is more emphatic than "correct"; and "more cautious," than "precaution." End of the quotation. But in the commentary of the Munyah by al-Halabi it is stated that when there is confliction between two Imams of authority, one employing the word "correct," the other "the most correct," it is better to follow the view signalised "correct." For both of them are unanimous as to its being "correct," and it is more agreeable to follow the view about which there is unanimity. . . . I found afterwards in the treatise on the "Duties of a Mutti" that when a report in an authentic work ends with "the most correct," "better'' or "a fortiori," or "the most conformable." or the like. then the Mufti is at liberty to give fatwa according to it or its opposite view, whichever he likes. When a report concludes with correct," or "the view followed," or "with it is given the fatwá," or "in accordance therewith is the fatwá," fatwá is not given according to its opposite view, unless it is stated in the Hidayah, for instance, "it is correct," and in the Kafi its opposite view has "it is correct." In such a case he has the option and he selects what he considers to be the strongest, best and most advantageous. End of the quotation. This should be remembered. The substance of what Shaykh Qasim

says in his "Correction" is that there is no difference between a Mutti and a Qadi except that the Mutti gives information as to the rule and the Qadi gives effect to it. (Durr al-Mukhtar, vol. i, pp. 70 to 76).

COMMENTS OF THE Radd.

"Conspicuous Reparations dealt with by our Hanafi masters classed into three groups, to which I

have already alluded:"

. 1. Questions of fundamental principles, also called Conspicuous Reports.—These are the questions reported from the leaders, founders of the school, Abu Hanifah, Abu Yusuf, Muhammad, Zufar, Hasan b. Ziyād and others, who studied under Abū Hanifah. But the common view is that "Conspicuous Reports" comprise the dicta of the three. The Books of Conspicuous Reports are the six books of Muhammad, viz.: (1) Mabeut, (2) Ziyādāt, (3) Jāmi'-al-ṣaghīr, (4) Siyar-al-ṣaghīr, (5) 'Jāmi'-al-Kabīr, and (6) Siyar-al-Kabīr. They are designated 'Conspicuous Reports," because they report from Muhammad authentic reports which are proved to come down from him either on account of their coming from different repeated sources or on account of common repute.

2. Questions of Rarity.—These are questions reported from the above-mentioned masters, but not in the above-mentioned books. Rather they are contained either (a) in other works of Muhammad, e.g., Kaysāniyyāt, Hārūniyyāt, Jurjāniyyāt, Raggiyyāt or (b) in books by authors other than Muhammad, e.g., Muharrar by Hasan b. Ziyad, etc., or books containing notes dictated by Abū Yūsuf to his pupils or (c) reported by a single isolated report, e.g., the report of Ibn Simā'ah,

etc., regarding certain specified questions.

Occurrences.—These are the questions deduced by later Mujtahids when questioned about cases with regard to which they could not find any report. They (later Mujtahids) are the companions of Abū Yūsuf and Muhammad and the companions of their companions, and so on, and they are numerous. Thus amongst the companions of the two Imams are men like 'Isam b. Yūsuf, Ibn Rustam, Abū Hafs al-Bukhārī Sometimes they have controverted the views of the founders of the school because of the proofs and causes which came to their knowledge. The first collection of their fatwas according to our information was that by the jurist Abu-'l-Layth of Samarqand. After him other collections were made by other masters, e.g., Majmū'-al-Nawāzil, Wāqi'āt al-Nātifi. . . . Know that amongst the books of the questions of fundamental principles is the Kitāb al-Kāfi, by al-Hākim al-Shahid, which is an authentic work on the traditional rules of the school, and has been commented on by a number of doctors amongst whom Imam Shams

A'immah al-Sarakhsi may be mentioned. It is known as the Mabeut of al-Sarakhsi. According to the most learned doctor al Tarsusi, whatever is opposed to the Mabsut of al-Sarakhei should not be acted upon; no fatual should be given except in accordance with it, and no reliance should be placed except upon it. The Muntagá, also by him, is also one of the books of the school . . . Know that there are numerous copies of the Mabsut reported from Muhammad, the clearest of which is the Mabsūi of Abū Sulaymān al-Jawzjānī. A number of later jurists have commented upon the Mabeut, e.g., the Shaykh-al-Islam Bakr, better known as Khwäherzädeh, his commentary being called the Mabsut-al-Kabir; and Shams-al-A'immah al-Halwa'i and others. Their Mabsuts are really commentaries interwoven with the Mabeut of Muhammad, as the commentators of the Jāmi'-al-Saghīr have done, e.g., Fakhr-al-Islām, Qādi Khān and others. Thus it is said, "Qādī Khān has mentioned it in the Jāmi'-al-Saghīr,'' his commentary being intended thereby. Similarly in other works. . . . This should be carefully remembered, for it is as important to remember this as the classification of the Masters of the School which we shall mention shortly. In the chapter of the two 'Ids of the Bahr and Nahr it is stated that the Jami'-al-Saghir was written by Muhammad after the Asl, therefore what it contains is reliable. The Nahr also states that the Asl was designated Asl, because it was composed first of all, then the Jāmi'-al-Saghīr, then the Kabīr, then the Ziyādāt. Thus it is laid down in the Ghayat-al-Bayan.

"Dictum of the Imām": The Mufti gives fatuá in accordance with the dictum of the Imām, because, says 'Abd-Allāh b. Mubārak, he had seen the Companions of the Prophet and had given fatuás contemporaneously with the successors of the companions, therefore his dictum is more correct and stronger

so long as there is no change of time and age.

"In the Hawi al-Qudsi, etc.": I say that this is indicated by the statement of the Sirājiyyah to the effect that the first view is more correct when the Mufti is not a Mujtahid. Thus it is explicit that the Mujtahid (i.e., one fit to examine the argument, proof) should follow, out of the various dicta, that which has the strongest proof. Otherwise the order stated above will be followed. Owing to this you will find that sometimes the jurists give preference to the dictum of some of his companions over the dictum of Abu Hanifah himself, e.g., they have preferred the dictum of Zufar alone in seventeen cases. So we follow what they preferred, for they were fit to scrutinize the proof. He (the author of Tanwir-al-Abear) has not stated any rule as to cases regarding which there are conflicting reports from the Imam Abu Hanifah or there are no reports at all either from him or his companions. In the first case, i.e., where there are conflicting reports, that which has the strongest argument is followed, as is laid down in the Hawi. Then he says,

when there is no clear answer from any of them regarding a particular case, but the later jurists have unanimously expressed an opinion about it, it is to be followed. If, however, they differ, the opinion of the majority is to be followed.

If no answer by way of express ruling is found from any source whatever, the Mufti should examine the case with care, consideration and ijtihād, so that he may deduce a rule concerning it which should approach exemption from responsibility. "The

Ulema have delivered fatwas, etc."

The learned base their fatual (or decision) on the opinion of Abū Hanifah in all questions of 'Ibūdāt' (or devotional acts).... They declare that decisions are to be based on the opinion of Muhammad an alliquestions relating to distant kindred (i.e., of inheritance). In al-Aebūh in the chapter on the 'Duties of a judge' it is stated that decision is according to the opinion of Abū Yūsuf in whatever relates to the duties of the judge, i.e., because he had a fuller knowledge of the subject and because of his practical experience. For a like reason Abū Hanifah after going on pilgrimage and knowing its hardships gave up his former opinion that charity is more meritorious than voluntary pilgrimage. It is stated in the commentary of al-Birī, that decision is according to the opinion of Abū Yūsuf in questions of evidence also, and decision is according to the opinion of Zufar in seventeen questions.

When there are Qiyas (analogy) and Istihsan (favourable construction) regarding a particular case, the practice should be in accordance with Istihsan except in a few well-known cases. When there are three views concerning a case, then the preferred opinion is that in the beginning or the end and not that in the middle. It is laid down in the Sharh-al-Munyah that when reason is in conformity with report, it should not be departed from. This is stated in the chapter on the obligatory ceremonials of prayers, where the author gives preference to the report concerning the obligatoriness of rising from the posture of bending and prostrating the body in prayer, on account of the arguments adduced, although it is contrary to the well-known report from Abu Hantfah.

"In the chapter on Waqf of the Bahr, etc.": When of two conflicting opinions, one is more favourable to the waqf as will be stated in the chapters on Waqf and Ijārah, the Mafā should deliver fatwa in accordance with that opinion, out of the conflicting views of the Ulema, which is more favourable to the waqf; and likewise if one of the two conflicting views is the view of the majority, as we have quoted above from al-Hāwī.

** And such like expressions ' : e.g., their saying, ' Its practice has become current "; ' It is the recognized practice.'

"Our Master": wherever this expression occurs in this book without any further qualification, the most learned doctor Shaykh Khayr al-din al-Ramii is meant by it.

"More suitable": i.e., to the requirements of his time. "More advantageous": is that which he deems suitable to that particular case. (Radd-al-Muḥtār, vol. i, pp. 71—76. Ed. Constantinople).

IV. It is stated in al-Mi'rāj on the authority of Fakhr al-A'immah:—'' If a Muļtī were to decide in accordance with any of these (i.e., weak) opinions in cases of necessity with a view to convenience or to make matters easy, it will be right.

(*Ibid.*, vol. i, p. 79).

V. The seven ranks of Mujtahids or eminent jurists.—The Mutto should know the position of the jurist on whose opinion he bases the fatwa. It is not enough merely to know his name and genealogy, but it is essential to be aware of the extent of his knowledge of reports, his eminence in reasoning and his rank in the classification of the jurists, so that he may intelligently discriminate between jurists holding opposite views and have adequate power to give preference to one of two conflicts ing views. (1) To the first class belong the Mujtahids with respect to the Sacred Law, e.g., the four Imams, and those who followed their policy in founding the first principles of jurisprudence, and by this characteristic they are distinguished from others. (2) To the second class belong the Mujtahids within the School, e.g., Abu Yusuf and Muhammad and the rest of the companions of Abū Hanīfah, capable of deducing rules from the proofs in conformity with the first principles concerning rules laid down by their master Abū Hanīfah. Although they have differed from him in certain minor rules, they follow him with respect to the fundamental principles. In this respect they are distinguished from the opponents of the School like al-Shāfi'I and others, opposed to him (Abū Hanifah) as regards rules, and not following him as regards fundamental principles. (3) To the third class belong the Mujtahids of cases regarding which there are no express rulings from the founder of the School, e.g., al-Khassaf, Abū Ja'far al-Tahāwi, Abu'l-Hasan al-Karkhi, Shams al-Ayimmah al-Halwā'i, Shams al-A'immah al-Sarakhsi, Fakhr al-Islām al-Bazdawi and Fakhr al-din Qādi Khān and others like them. They can oppose Abu Hanifah neither with regard to fundamental principles nor with regard to rules applicable to particular cases, but they deduce rules, applicable to cases regarding which there are no express rulings, in conformity with the fundamental principles and rules. (4) The fourth class is that of the "people of takhrij" (deduction), comprising of such sectaries as al-Razi and men like him. They are not at all capable of making Iitihad, but on account of their thorough grasp of the fundamental principles and mastery over the original sources, they are capable of making detailed analysis of a general dictum susceptible of double meaning, and an ambiguous rule capable of two interpretations, reported from the founder of the School or one of his companions, by means of their own

judgment and examination of the fundamental principles, and analogy based on a comparison of similar and parallel cases. The statement in the Hidayah, "Such is the takhrij of al-Karkhi and the takhrij of al-Rāzi' is of this kind. (5) The fifth class is that of "the people of preference" from amongst the sectaries, e.g., Abu'l-Hasan al-Quduri and the author of the Hidauah and others like them Their position is that of giving some reports preference over others, like their saying, "This is better"; "This is more correct as to report"; "This is more lenient to people." (6) The sixth class comprises the sectaries capable of discriminating between "the strongest," "strong" and "weak," between the obvious reports of the School and the rare reports, e.g., the authors of authentic texts from amongst the later jurists, e.g., the author of the Kanz, the author of the Mukhtar, the author of the Wigayah and the author of the Majmū'. Their position is that they do not report rejected traditions and weak reports. (7) The seventh class comprises of those below the rank of the jurists mentioned above. 1 (Radd. i, p. 79).

VI. Absolute Mujtahids [i.e., of the first rank like Abū Hanifah, Mālik, etc.] have become extinct. But limited Muitahids are divided into seven well-known ranks. As for us, it is our duty to follow what they have preferred and declared correct as we would have followed their fatua in their lifetime. If it is said that sometimes they state opinions without indicating any preference, and sometimes they differ as to the correct view, I reply that we should act as they acted, viz., take into consideration the varying practice, the condition of society, that which is more lenient, that with regard to which practice (Ta'āmul) becomes manifest, and that whose reasoning is strong.

(Durr-al-Mukhtār, vol. i, p. 80. Ed. Const.).

COMMENTS OF THE RADD-AL-MUHTAR.

VII. "Without indicating any preference": So it shall not be departed from without there being an explicit preference in favour of the opposite view. The same rule holds good when one of the two views occurs in the texts or commenta-

I Mawlawi 'Abd-al-Hayy of Lucknow, in his Introduction to his commentary on the Shark-al Wiqāyah (p. 8), reproduces this classification of eminent jurists with some further details. He adds a note on "the people of preference" to the following effect: Amongst them al-Kafawi counts 'Ali al-Rāzī, pupil of Hasan b. Ziyād, Ibn Kamāl Pasha of Turkey, and Abū'l-Su'ūd al-'Imādī of Turkey, the celebrated commentator of the Qur'ān; the author of Bakral-Rā'iq counts also amongst them Ibn Humām, the author of Fath-al-Qadīr. It is also said that the latter attained the rank of a Mustakid. latter attained the rank of a Mujtahid.

there is Istisan regarding cases other than those excepted, or it happens to be more favourable to the waq!. (Vol. I, p. 80):

VIII. "His School": A Hanafi giving judgment according to the school of Abu Yusuf or Muhammad gives judgment

according to his own school.

"Contrary to his school": i.e., the fundamental basis of his school, e.g., when a Hanafi gives judgment according to the school of al-Shāfi'i, etc. But if a Hanafi gives judgment according to the school of Abū Yūsuf or Muhammad or any other companion of the Imām like them, the judgment will not be contrary to his opinion (Durar), i.e., because the companions of the Imām never gave expression to an opinion which was not originally held by the Imām himself. (Radd al-Muhtār, iv, 518. Ed. Const.).

IX. THE 'UMDAT-AL-RI'AYAH, COMMENTARY ON THE SHARH-AL-WIQAYAH, INTRODUCTION BY 'ABD-AL-HAYY. (Ed. Lucknow).

The fact of the matter is that our greatest Imām said, "It is not permitted to any one to accept our dictum so long as he is not aware of its source, either from the Book, the Sunnah, the consensus of the people, or manifest analogy with regard to any particular case." ('Umdat-al-Ri'āyah, p.14, Ed. Lucknow).

Al-Shāfi'i said, "When a hadīth is found to be correct contrary to my dictum, throw my dictum over the wall, and act on

the sound hadith." (Ibid., p. 14).

In the chapter of the Ashbāh on the Duties of a Judge, it is laid down that the Mufts should base his fatwa on what he considers to be advantageous. The same view is stated in the chapter on Dower of al-Bazzāziyyah. It is laid down also in the Ashbāh that the fatwa regarding a waqf should be based on what is most favourable to it. The same view is stated in the

Sharh-al-Majma' and the Hāwi-al-Qudsī. (Ibid., p. 15).

By the words "Imām" and "the greatest Imām" occurring in the works of our leading jurists, the founder of the School Abū Hanīfah is meant. And he is also meant by the expression "founder of the School." By the phrase, "Two companions," Abū Yūsuf and Muhammad are meant, and by "Two Shaykhs," Abū Hanīfah and Abū Yūsuf; by "Two sides," Muhammad and Abū Hanīfah. By the "Second Imām," Abū Yūsuf is meant; by the "Divine Imām," Muhammad; by their expression, "according to our three Imāms," Abū Hanīfah, Muḥammad and Abū Yūsuf; and by "four Imāms," Abū Hanīfah, Mālik; al-Shāfi'ī and Ahmad, the founders of the well-known Schools. By "Shams-al-A'immah" without any further qualification occurring in the works of our eminent jurists, Shāms-al-A'immah al-Sarakhsī is meant. ("Umdat-al-Ri-āyaā, p. 16)

The pronoun occurring in such expressions of the jurists as 'this is the decision according to him," "this is his school," when no other substantive precedes to which it can be referred. refers to Abu Hantfah, even though no mention of him precedes. because he is supposed to be mentioned conventionally. "According to the two," i.e., Abu Yusuf and Muhammad. Sometimes Abu Hanfish and Abu Yusuf and sometimes Abu Hanfish and Muhammad are meant by this phrase according to the context.

The difference between "according to him" and "from him? is that the former indicates the School and the latter the report. Thus, when they say, "Such is the case according to Abu Hantsh," it indicates that such is his School. But when they say, "From him is such and such," it indicates that such

is the report from him. ('Umdat-al-Ri'āyah, p. 17).

Often they lay down a decision, introducing it by the expression, "it is said"; and the commentators and annotators write below it, "this alludes to its weakness." The fact of the matter is that such is the case when the author adopts it as a conventional term to indicate overruled decisions and their weakness. In such a case decisive judgments can be given regarding it . . . otherwise not. (Ibid., p. 17).

X. FATAWA KHAYRIYYAH (Vol. I, p. 218, 2nd ed., Govt. Press, Būlāg, Cairo).

Answer.—Yes, it is valid. Our celebrated Ulema have expressly declared the validity of exchange (istibdal) even with dirhams and dinars. They declare that when it is advantageous to do so, it is lawful to act in spite of any stipulation to the contrary....our jurists are unanimous in giving fatwa according to what is more advantageous to the waqf where there is difference of opinion.

XI. THE IS'AF (Ed. Bulaq).

And the subject-matter of waqf is any property having legal value on condition of its being land or moveable or anything

the wagf of which is recognized. (Muta'ārif, p. 9).

If he makes wagt of a field and makes mention of the slaves, water-wheels and the implements of husbandry in it, they become waqf . . . and if some of them become too infirm to work, the Mutawalli may sell them, and purchase other slaves in their stead. Similarly he may sell the water-wheels and the implements and buy with their price that which is more beneficial for the waqf (p. 17). And in the Fatawa Nationit is reported from Muliammad b. Abd-Allah al-Ansari, one of the comparions of Zufar, that it is valid to make wayf of dirhams and edibles, and that which is sold by measure and that which is sold by weight. It was said to him, "How are the dishams to be employed? " He said, it should be invested in business (Mudārabah) and the profits should be spent in charity. Similarly what is sold by measure and what is sold by weight should be sold for dirhams and dinārs, which should be invested in business and the profits given away in charity, (p. 18).

CHAPTER ON THE WAQF OF MOVEABLES BY THEMSELVES.

And the correct view is that reported from Muhammad that it is valid to make waqt of such moveables with respect to which recognized practice $(Ta'\bar{a}rut)$ has ensued, e.g., copies of the Qur'ān, books, pick-axe, hatchet, saw, cauldron and bier, on account of the existence of recognized practice $(Ta'\bar{a}rut)$ regarding the waqt of these things, whereby analogy $(Qiy\bar{a}s)$ is abandoned as in the case of $Istin\bar{a}$... one of the conditions of the validity of waqt is perpetuity as we have described above, but we have abandoned it (a) regarding the things just mentioned owing to recognized practice $(Ta'\bar{a}rut)$; and (b) regarding arms and horses for $jih\bar{a}d$ on account of express tradition.

If a person makes waqf of a cow for the service of a resting house, stipulating that its milk, curd and butter should be given to wayfarers, it is valid where such is the recognized practice, as in the case of the water of a public fountain; otherwise

 ${f not}$

. . . . And it has already been stated above that Muhammad b. 'Abd-Allāh al-Angārī, one of the companions of Zufar, held the

waqj of dirhams and grain valid. (pp. 20-21).

Abū Yūsuf and Muhammad are unanimous regarding the validity of waqf of Mushā', which is not partible, e.g., public baths, wells and mills. But there is divergence regarding what is partible. It is declared valid by Abū Yūsuf, and the jurists of Balkh have accepted his decision, but Muhammad has declared it void, and if a Qāḍi decrees the validity of a Mushā' waqf the divergence is removed. (p. 21).

XII. THE FATAWA QAPI KHAN (Vol. III, p. 306, Cairo edition).

CHAPTER ON THE WAQF OF MOVEABLES.

Shams-al-A'immah al-Sarakhsi says:—As regards waqf of moveables independently there is a difference of opinion between Abū Yūsuf and Muhammad. This is stated in the Siyar-al-Kabīr. He says the correct answer is as follows: Anything with regard to which there is a clear practice among men to appropriate, it is valid to make waqf thereof, e.g., (1) Bier and its pall. (2) Anything needed for the washing of the dead, such as pot and vessels. (3) Copies of the Qur'ān. (4) Horses, camels, etc., arms and horses for jihād. (5) Jurists are not agreed as regards waqf of books, which, however, is declared valid by the jurist Abu'l-Layth, and the fatwa

is in accordance with it. Nasir, for instance, made waqf of his books. (6) A man makes wagf of a cow for the benefit of a resting house, so that what may be obtained in the shape of milk and butter and curd will be given to the wayfarers. Then if this happens in a place where they have recognized it, the waqf is valid, as it is valid to make wagt of the water of a public fountain. (7) A man makes wagt of an animal for the benefit of a resting place. . . . (8) A man makes waqf of a bull for the benefit of the people of a village, in order to cover their cows; this is not valid, because religious merit is not intended thereby, and there is no clear practice in its favour. (9) A man places a jar. . . . (10) A man makes wagt of a building without its site. Hilal says this is not lawful. (11) And it is reported from Zufar: a man makes waqf of dirhams or grain or what is sold by measure or what is sold by weight. He declared it valid. It was said to him, "How would it (waqt) be (carried out)?" He said that the money should be invested in business and the profits given in charity for the benefit of the object of the wagt, and what goes by measure and weight should be sold and their sale proceeds invested in commerce (bidā'ah) or business (Mudārabah) as in the case of money. They have held on the analogy of the above decision, that if a person says "this kurr (measure) of wheat is wagf'' on condition that the same should be lent to such of the poor who have no seed grains with them, so that they may cultivate the same for themselves, and then the quantity lent should be taken back from them after the crops have grown and the same should be lent to other poor people; and in this wise perpetually—the wagt shall be valid in this way, (12) A sick person makes a will in regard to thousand dirhams.... (13) From Abū Yūsuf it is reported that the waqf of animals, etc., is not valid. (14) A man makes wagt of a garden with cows, cattle, slaves, etc., valid. (15) A man in good health makes a wagt of a place and divests it from himself, whereupon a usurper takes possession of it, and intervenes between the waqf and him. The Shaykh Imam Abū Bakr Muhammad b. al-Fadl says: Its price should be taken from the usurper and another place should be bought with it, and he shall make waqf of it according to the conditions of the previous

XIII. THE JAMI'-AL-RUMUZ OF AL-QUHISTANI (Vol. 111, p. 524, Ed. Cal.).

And it is valid according to Muhammad to make want of movesbles (i.e., things capable of being moved from one place to another) with regard to which there is Ta'amul (i.e., Ta'aruf), e.g., a copy of the Qur'an and the like (e.g., books, pickaxes, saws, vessels, bowls, biers, and their palls; arms, horses, donkeys, slaves, oxen, agricultural implements, trees, right of water with the land, pigeons with their cote, bees with their hive. But if they are not the subject of Ta'amul, their waqt is not valid except by way of dependence. Thus it is laid down in the Mughni and other books, and it is stated in al-Zāhidī that according to Muhammad, wayf of moveables is valid even if it be not the subject of recognized practice (Ta'āmul). But according to Abū Yūsuf the wagi is void if it is not the subject of Ta'amul. And the fatwa is in accordance with it, i.e., the jatua is given in accordance with the view of Muhammad which declared such a waqj valid, because of the necessity of the people.

XIV. THE DURB-AL-MUNTAQÁ (Vol. I, p. 746, Ed. Const.).

Similarly the waqf of any moveable property whose waqf is recognized (Ta'aruf) is valid according to Muhammad; so also is valid according to Muhammad the wagt of such moveables of which the wagf is not recognized in practice, but it is void according to Abu Yusuf, if their waqf is not so recognized. Thus it is laid down in the Sharh-al-Wahbaniyyah from al-Zāhidī from the Siyar-al-Kabir, and it has been followed by Shurunbulāli who has affirmed the rule, and it has been cited by al-Quhistani. who has also affirmed it. This must be carefully noted. But in al-Birjinde, etc., it is stated that the wagf of moveables whose waqf is not recognized in practice is not valid, according to all the three. But according to al-Shaff'l everything from which profit can be derived consistently with the preservation of its original, provided that its sale is lawful, its wagf is valid just as that of land As for instance pickages, shovels, and all implements of husbandry, right of water, hatchets, saws, biers and their palls, and likewise the wag! of woollen clothes for the benefit of the poor. And in our time some Mutawallis have made wagf of furs for the use of the Muezzins at night in winter. Such a warf ought to be valid, especially according to the statement shove, reported from al-Zahidi. "Cauldrone, pote, copies of the

Que an booke etc. ' And our jurists have added moveable articles to those mentioned by Muhammad and Abu Yusuf, acting on the principle of To amul, as is laid down in the Manh. I, therefore, say that taking into consideration this opinion and that of al-Zahidi, already stated above, there is no need of referring to the report of al-Ansari from Zufar with regard to wagf of dishams and dinars as has been supposed, and indeed have been issued royal orders to the Qadis, to give decrees according to it (the view validating the waqi of dirhams and dinars) as is laid down in the Ma'rudat of the Mufti Abu'l-Su'ūd. Similarly the wagt of articles capable of being measured or weighed is valid, they being sold and their price being applied in business or commerce like dirhams. On the analogy of this they have declared the validity of the waqi of a kurr of wheat on condition that it should be lent to one who has no seed, etc.

If a person makes way of a cow on condition that whatever comes out of it in the shape of milk and butter should go to the poor, if they are in the habit of doing so, I should expect the waaf to be valid. The Manh has added to the list the wagt of buildings without the site, and likewise that of trees without the land, because they are moveables with regard to which there is

Ta'āmul.

And according to it, i.e., the view of Muhammad, is the fatua, in consequence of the existence of Ta'amul, whereby Qiyas is abandoned as in the case of a contract with an artisan for supplying articles to be made to order (Istienā'). The Prophet has said: "Whatever is good in the sight of the Muslims is good in the sight of God."

THE MAJMA'-AL-ANHUR (Vol. I, p. 746, Ed. Const.).

The wag' of land is valid . . .

Similarly is valid according to Muhammad the waaf of moveables, the waqf of which has become recognized in practice (Ta'aruf), as is valid the waqf of moveables directly when people have made a Ta'amul of their wagf, e.g., pickaxes, shovels, hatchets, saws, biers with their palls, cauldron, pots, copies of the Qur'an, books. And according to it, i.e., the view of Muhammad. is the fatwa in consequence of the presence of Ta'amul in these articles. And this view has been adopted by the majority of the jurists of all countries: and that is the correct view, as is laid down in the $Is'\bar{a}f$; and that is the view of the generality of jurists as is laid down in the Zahiriyyah. Because qiyas is sometimes abandoned on account of Ta'amul as in the case of Istiena' . . . And al-Mujiaba reports the difference of opinion between Abli Yusuf and Muhammad differently to what has been just stated, viz., that according to Muhammad, wagf of moveables was valid. absolutely, whether any practice respecting it prevailed or not, the view of Abu Yusuf being that it was valid if there was Taāmul respecting it. As $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ became prevalent with regard to the waqf of dinārs and dirhams in the time of Zufar, their waqf being declared valid according to one report, they came within the purview of the dictum of Muhammad in accordance with which is the fatwa respecting the waqf of every moveable concerning which $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ may arise as is obvious. Consequently there is no need of especially ascribing the view in favour of the validity of their waqf to the doctrine of Zufar as reported by al-Ansārī; and verily has the author of the Bahr given fatwa in favour of their validity without reporting any difference of opinion on this point; this is laid down in the Manh.....

.... And the present practice is to decree in favour of its validity. Similarly such is also the rule in the case of wagf of trees, and in the Manh it is laid down: "the recognized practice of our country is to make waqf of a building without its site. also the wagf of trees without the land: thus the fatwa is determined in favour of its validity because these are moveables in which there is $Ta'\bar{a}mul$.' By $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ is intended the $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ of the companions of the Prophet and that of the companions of the companions, and of the Mujtahids from among the Imams of the faith, and not the Ta'aruf of the common people, as some of the learned have held. According to this view, the statement of the author of al-Manh, viz., "that the practice, etc., because they are moveables in which there is Ta'amul," is not reliable. But in the Muhit and other works it is laid down: "A man makes a wagi of a cow for the benefit of a resting-house, on condition that what comes out in the shape of milk and butter should be given to the wayfarers: where such waqf prevails, I should expect it to be valid." But some of our jurists hold it to be valid absolutely, "Because," say they, "Ta'aruf has ensued with regard to it in the country of the Muslims." This shows that the meaning is absolute Ta'aruf, not what some have said.

XVI. MULLA MISKIN AND THE FATH-AL-MU'IN (Vol. II, p. 507, Edition Cairo).

(a) Text of the Kanz with the Commentary of Mulla Miskin.

The waqf of moveables in which there is $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ is valid, i.e., with regard to making waqf of which there is practice ('Adah), unrestrictedly whether it is a copy of the Qur'ān, or pickaxe, or shovel, or hatchet, or saw, or bier or its pall, or cauldrons, or pots, or transport animals, according to Muhammad. And the generality of jurists have adopted his view on account of Istiheān.

(b) Commentary of the Fath-al-Mu'in.

[&]quot;In which there is Ta'amul": e.g., pickaxes, hatchets

dirhams and dinars. Thus it has been laid down in the Tanwir. and this is the view of Muhammad, and according to it is the

iatud.—Durr from the Ikhtiyar.

From this we learn that the waq' of dirhams and dinars belongs to the class of waqf influenced by Ta'amul, and the same information we gather from the statement of al-Zayla'i and al-'Aynī. Accordingly Ta'āmul in all countries is not a condition, and this shows the inaccuracy of the argument of the Nahr when it says, "The statement of Muhammad, which has just preceded, necessitates the invalidity of that in Egyptian lands in consequence of the absence of its practice (Ta'aruf) altogether. Yes, indeed, the waqf of dirhams and dinars has become recognized in the Turkish dominions." Again in the Sharh Multaqa'l-Abhur by al-'Ala'i after the quotation from the text the following comments occur: "And similarly is valid the waqf of moveables whose waqf is recognized in practice according to Muhammad, and similarly that which is not recognized in practice is also valid according to Muhammad, as is laid down in the Sharh al-Wahbaniyyah from al-Zahidi from the Siyar-al-Kabir, and Shurunbulāli has followed it, and al-Quhistāni has affirmed it." Then it (Sharh-al-Multagá) states, "Therefore according to what has preceded as reported from al-Zāhidi, there is no necessity for referring to the report of al-Anṣārī And the royal command had already been from Zufar. issued to the Qadis to give decision to that effect as is laid down in the Ma'rūdāt of the Muftī Abu'l-Su'ūd.'', From this it is learnt that the fatwa of some to the effect that the view declaring the validity of the waff of dirhams is weak, because of its having been reported from Zufar, is incorrect. "That is to say, there is practice to make waff of it": On account of the saying of the Prophet, "Whatever is good in the sight of the Muslims is good in the sight of God," and because Ta'aruf is stronger than qiyas, so qiyas is disregarded thereby as in the case of istisnā'.

THE BAHR-AL-RA'IQ AND THE MANHAT-AL-KHALIQ XVII. (Vol. V, p. 216 et seq., Ed. Cairo).

The subject-matter of waqf is property having legal value

(Māl Mutagawwim), (p. 202).

The wagf of land with its cows and serfs is valid, and also that of Mushā' whose validity has been decreed, and that of moveables wherein there is Ta'amul.

And Muhammad has laid down that such moveables with regard to which there is Ta'amul is valid, and the view has been adopted by the majority of the jurists of various countries because qiyas is disregarded on account of Ta'-

of opinion with regard to moveables has been reported differently and referred to the Siyar, viz., that the view of Muhammad is its validity absolutely, irrespective of there being any practice or not, and that of Abū Yūsuf is its validity provided that there is practice with regard to it. And the Hidāyah instances the following as examples of moveables influenced by Taāmul: pickaxe, hatchet, saw, bier and its pall, cauldrons, pots, and copies of the Qur'ān. And it is reported from Nastr b. Yaḥya that he made waqi of his books on the analogy of the waqi of copies of the Qur'ān—and this is correct.

It is laid down in the Tahrir whilst discussing the primary meaning of words, that Ta'amul means the more frequent in use; that is why Imam Muhammad has confined the validity of waqf of moveables to those things. Therefore those things which were not influenced by Ta'amul were excluded, e.g., clothes, animals, gold, silver, even if in the shape of ornaments, because their wagt cannot be perpetual, and this is indispensable; contrary to the case of transport animals and arms because of express tradition regarding them, and to that of the articles' stated above in consequence of Ta'amul: the rest come under the operation of the original rule of qiyas. Verily some jurists have added to the list of Muhammad other moveable articles when they perceived the prevalence of Ta'amul regarding them: (1) Thus it is laid down in the Khulasah: a person makes waqf of a cow on condition, etc....valid. (2) It is reported from al-Ansari who was a companion of Zufar, with regard to the wagf of dirhams or dinars or grain or what is measured or weighed valid. (3) And wagf of woollen clothes and covering of the dead is valid where it is made waqf as a perpetual charity, the woollen clothes being given to the poor to benefit by it in the season of wearing it. (4) Waqf of bull not valid. (5) Waqf of slaves and slave-girls for the service of a resting-house, valid. Thus it is laid down in the Fath-al Qadir. (6) The wagt of a boat is not stated, nor am I aware of anyone expressly stating it, and there is no doubt that it is included under such moveables as are not influenced by Ta'amul. Thus its wagf is not valid. (7) Waqf of a garden with cows, cattle. slaves, etc. . . . valid. (8) Waqf of medicine for hospital not valid unless the poor be mentioned. (9) Two more cases remain .— (a) waqf of a building without its site. In the Dhakhirah it is laid down that the waqf of a building without the site is not valid because it is moveable whose waqi is not practised; (b) waqi of trees not valid.

XVIII. THE HIDAYAH (Vol. V, p. 430, Ed. Cairo).

And Muhammad has held that it is valid to dedicate horses and arms, i.e., it is valid to make wagf of them in the

way of God. And Abu. Yusuf agrees with him in this on the ground of Istihean, the giyas being according to what we have said before that such a waqi is not valid. The reason for applying the principle of Istihean is based on well-known traditions concerning these articles, e.g., the following saying of the Prophet: "As for Khaid he has verily dedicated suits of armour and chargers in the way of God." Talhah, also, dedicated his armour in the way of God.''.

"Horses" means war-horses, etc. Camels are also comprehended in this term, because the Arabs ride camels in battles:

arms are comprehended in the term "suits of armour."

It is reported from Muhammad that it is valid to make wagi of such moveables as are influenced by Ta'amul, e.g., spades, shovels, pickaxes, saw, bier and its pall, cauldrons, pots, copies of the Qur'an.... Muhammad holds that givas is abandoned by Ta'amul as in the case of Istiena', and Ta'amul is found to exist in these articles. It is reported from Nasir b. Yahya that he made waqf of his books on the analogy of the copies of the Qur'an, and this is correct and the majority of the jurists of various countries have adopted the view of Muhammad. And such moveables as are not influenced by Ta'amul, their wagf is not valid according to us. But al-Shāfi'l has said that the waqi of anything from which profit can be derived consistently with the preservation of its original, provided that its sale is lawful, is valid; because it is possible to derive profit from it, and so it resembles land, horses and arms. Our (Hanafi) argument is that the waqi of these articles cannot endure perpetually, and this is indispensable as already stated. Therefore, these articles become like dirhams and dinars (unlike land) whilst there is no antagonistic influence either on the ground of express tradition or that of Ta'amul. So they remain under the operation of the original rule of Qiyas (analogy). This is so because land endures, and jihad is the highest religious duty. Therefore the idea of piety in these two is stronger than in any other thing. So other articles besides these cannot come within their meaning.

XIX. THE FATH-AL-QADIR (Vol. V, p. 429, Ed. Cairo).

Al-Quduri says that Abu Yusuf held the wagi of land with cows and its cultivators (and they are slaves) valid And if some of them fall ill and become incapable of work, the Mutawalli may sell those who become unfit for work and buy with the price others who can work. Similarly as when some of them are killed and he takes the blood-money. he is bound to purchase another with it.

The reason for applying the rule of Istihsan is based on well-known traditions concerning those articles, i.e., concerning horses and arms. And among those traditions the following saying of the Prophet is reported from Abū Hurayrah in the two Sahīhs (al-Bukhūrī and Muslim):—

"As for Khālid, verily you are hard upon him, whilst he has verily dedicated his suits of armour in the way of God."

The other statement by the author of the Hidayah to the effect that Talhah dedicated his armour, is unknown. The majority of jurists of all countries follow the dictum of Muhammad, viz., that the waqf of those moveables which are influenced by Ta'amul is valid; those which are not influenced by Ta'amul it is not valid to appropriate them in accordance with our (Hanafi) opinion. But al-Shafi'i says that the wagt of anything is valid from which profit can be derived whilst its original endures, provided that its sale is lawful. This is the view also of Mālik and Ahmad. But the waqf of anything from which no profit can be derived except by its destruction, is not valid like gold and silver, and eatables and drinkables, according to the generality of [Shāfi'ī, Mālikī and Hanbalī] jurists. By gold and silver is meant dirhams and dinārs, not anything in the shape of ornaments, for as to ornaments, it is valid to make waqf of them according to the opinion of Ahmad and al-Shāfi'i, because Hafsah had bought ornaments for 20,000 dirhams and dedicated them for the use of the women of the family of al-Khattab; hence no poor-rate was levied on them. According to Ibn Qudamah in his Mughni, Ahmad does not hold the waqf of ornaments valid, and denies the authenticity of this tradition. The substance of the reason of the body of Shāfi'i, Māliki, and Hanbali jurists is based on the analogy of horses. the author confutes this argument by saying that the effect of a legal waqf is perpetuity and other articles besides land do not endure, although indeed this condition is disregarded in the case of *jihād*.

Now that you have known the rules that govern the waqf of moveables, you should know that some jurists have added other moveables to the articles mentioned by Muḥammad when they perceived the prevalence of $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ [in their time]: (1) Waqf of cow, stipulating that milk, butter valid. (2) Reported from al-Anṣārī waqf of dirhams, grain, etc. valid. (3) Woollen clothes and shrouds, when dedicated by way of charity perpetually . . . valid. (4) Waqf of slaves and slave-girls for the benefit of a resting-house valid.

XX. THE KIFAYAH (Vol. V, p. 431, Ed. Cairo).

"Consistently with the continued existence of its original"
—this is in order to guard against dirhams and dinārs, because
the use for which dirhams and dinārs are made is price [medium

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of exchange] and it is not possible to profit by them consistently with the continuance of their originals in his possession. "Sale is lawful"—this is to guard against Umm-al-Walad, whose wagf is not valid. "Whilst there is no antagonistic influence on the ground of tradition "-The qiyas with regard to moveables is that their waqf is not valid, because their waqf does not endure, whilst perpetuity is indispensable; but the antagonistic influence of tradition has overruled qiyas in certain cases, as for instance, in the case of horses and arms because of the existence of well-known traditions; and in certain other cases the antagonistic influence of Ta'amul has overruled qiyas, as for instance, in the case of axes, hatchets, shovels, cauldrons, and pots; the rest, for instance, articles like clothes and carpets, and those like slaves and slave-girls dedicated independently continue subject to the rule of givas. as there is no opposing force with respect to them on the ground of tradition or Ta'āmul.

XXI. THE 'INAYAH (Vol. V, p. 432, Ed. Cairo).

We (the Hanasis) contend that the wags of moveables does not endure, and that is obvious, and whatever does not endure cannot be made waqf of-perpetuity being indispensable as stated before. Therefore all the moveables become like dirhams and dinars. The author's statement "unlike land" is by way of reply to his (al-Shāfi'i's) reliance on the analogy of land. The author's statement "whilst there is no antagonistic influence on the ground of tradition" is by way of reply to his (al-Shāfi'i's) statement, "therefore it resembles horses and arms." The reason is that like dirhams, originally, the waat of horses and arms also were not valid, but that we have abandoned it (qiyas) in consequence of an out-weighing antagonistic influence based on tradition. The author's statement "nor on the ground of Ta'amul" is by way of reply to the following argument: The original principle has been disregarded with respect to horses and arms in consequence of an antagonistic influence based on tradition which is not present in cauldrons, shovels, etc. Therefore, let the case in dispute be decided on the analogy of these. The reason is that the articles mentioned above have been affected by an antagonistic influence based on Ta'amul which is not present in the question in dispute, e.g., slaves and slave-girls, clothes, carpets and the like. So these remain subject to the rule of the qiyās.

The author (of the *Hidāyah*) did not mention *Ta'āmul* relying on its being a well-known fact that *Ta'āmul* is stronger than *Qiyās*, and it is therefore permitted to disregard it (*qiyās*) in consequence of *Ta'āmul*.

XXII. SA'DI CHALPI (V, p. 430, Ed. Cairo).

As to the statement of the author (of the 'Inagah') that "one of its conditions is perpetuity, and perpetuity is not present in moveables," I say that this statement is open to criticism; the reason being given in the reply from the argument of al-Shāfi'i as will be stated later on. The author says it (the perpetuity) is indispensable as stated before." I say the logical conclusion is that what is indispensable is the continuance of the waqf, so long as the subject-matter of the waqf continues, and this condition is fulfilled in the case in dispute also. Therefore the matter requires careful consideration.

XXIII. AL-'AYNI'S COMMENTABY ON THE HIDÂYAH (II, p. 993, Ed. Lucknow).

- Al-Shāfi'ī, Mālik and Aḥmad have held that waqf of such moveables from which profit can be derived consistently with the continuance of their originals is valid. From Mālik there are two reports with regard to the waqf of horses and arms. As to the waqf of that from which no profit could be derived except by destruction, e.g., gold, silver, eatables, drinkables, it is said that their waqf is not valid according to the generality of [Shāfi'ī, etc.] jurists and scholars, but that what has been reported from Mālik and al-Awzā'ī that the waqf of grain is valid, has not been confirmed by the companions of Mālik: therefore, this is not correct (p. 993).
- "As for Khālid, etc., in the way of God": This saying of the Prophet has been reported by al-Bukhāri and Muslim from Abū Hurayrah (p. 994).
- "Al-Shāfi'ī holds that the waqf of everything from which profit can be derived consistently, etc., original": This is to guard against dirhams and dīnārs because the use for which dirhams and dīnārs are made is price, etc.
- "Its waqf is valid because it is possible to derive profit from it, therefore it resembles land, horses and arms": The reason is that originally the waqf of horses and arms was not valid, i.e., every thing from which profit can be derived consistently with the continuance of its original, resembles land with respect to the validity of its waqf. "We (Hanafis) contend that the waqf of them," i.e., of the moveables which he (al-Shāfi'i) mentions,
- "Does not endure, and it is indispensable": i.e., the state of things is that perpetuity being indispensable the wag of what does not endure is not valid.

"As already described by us": i.e., above, viz., the condition of perpetuity.

"Therefore it becomes": (i.e., every moveable from which profit can be derived consistently with the preservation of its

(Not.) (Not.) regard to the original). 'like dishams and dinars,' i.e., with regard to the absence of validity.

'Unlike land,' i.e., because there is perpetuity in it,

although not expressly mentioned or stipulated.

Whilst there is no antagonistic influence based on tractition," i.e., this is by way of reply to his (al-Shāfi'i's) statement, "therefore it resembles land, horses and arms." "Nor on the ground of Ta'amul': this is by way of reply to what may be said to the effect that the principle has been abandoned in the case of horses and arms owing to an antagonistic force based on tradition which is not to be found in the case of a hatchet and shovel, etc., therefore let the question in dispute be decided on the analogy of these. The reason is that these two articles have been influenced by an antagonistic force based on Ta'amul which is not to be found in the case in dispute, e.g., slaves, slave-girls, clothes, carpets and the like.

The author of the Muhit says: A person makes waqf of 150 dinars for the benefit of the sick by way of will 1; this waqf is valid, and the gold should be given to a man to be employed in business (Mudarabah) and the profits applied to the purposes of the wayf. The same rule holds good, says the Muhit, in the case of wagi of dirhams and what is sold by measure

and what is sold, by weight (p. 996).

XXIV. MUSTAKHLAS-AL-HAQÄ'IQ (204, Edn. Bom.).

"Moveables in which there is Ta'amul," i.e., amongst people, e.g., pickaxes, dirhams and dinārs, cauldrons, a bier and its pall, copies of the Qur'an and books; contrary to those in which there is no Ta'amul.

XXV. THE KANZ-AL-BAYAN (Vol. I, 116, Edn. Cairo).

It is valid to make waff of a moveable independently with respect to which there is Ta'amul of the people, e.g., pick-axes, shovels, dirhams, dinars, cauldrons, a bier with its pall, copies of the Qur'an and books; contrary to those with respect to which there is no Ta'amul, e.g., clothes and household goods in the opinion of Muhammad and the fatua is in accordance therewith.

XXVI. AL-'AYNI'S COMMENTARY ON THE KANZ AL-DAQA'IQ (II, p. 461, Edition Lucknow).

And also is lawful the wagt of moveables, such as horses and arms, pickaxes, cauldrons, shovels, saws, a bier and its

A Or according to another reading, "for the benefit of the sick from autonost the suffa."

pail, copies of the Qur'ān, books on jurisprudence, traditions and literature, and other things besides, with regard to whose waqf Ta'āmul or Ta'āruf (practice) arises. This is the dictum of Muḥammad, and the fatwā is in accordance with it on account of traditions being in its favour. Arguing on the analogy of horses and arms al-Shāfi'i holds the waqf of everything valid whose sale is lawful and from which profit can be derived along with the continuance of its original. We (Hanafis) contend that the original state is the absence of the validity of waqf; therefore waqf should be limited to those things regarding which the law is express, viz., land and horses. The rest continue in the original state suggested by analogy (qiyās) except those with regard to which Ta'āmul arises when they become like dirhams and dīnārs.

XXVII. SUPER-COMMENTARY ON AL-'AYNI ON THE KANZ (II, p. 463, Edition Lucknow).

Wherein there is $Ta'\bar{a}mul$, i.e., is lawful the waqf of moveables with regard to which there is $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ of the people, i.e., the practice (' $\bar{A}dah$) of making waqf of which has arisen. This is the view of Muhammad, and the fatwa is in accordance therewith: and it is said that Abū Yūsuf agrees with him in this view.

XXVIII. THE TANWIR-AL-ABŞAR (III, p. 578, Edition Const.).

And if a person makes waqf of land with the cows and the serfs attached to it, it is valid like Mushā' whose validity has been decreed by a Qidī, and moveables wherein there is Ta'āmul, e.g., axes, shovels, dirhams, and dīnārs.

XXIX. THE DURR-AL-MUKHTAR (III, pp. 576-78, Edition Const.).

And is valid the waqf of slaves for the purposes of a resting-house (Khulāṣah) and if any is killed wilfully, recourse should not be had to retaliation (Bazzāziyyah), but rather the price should be realized in order to purchase with it his substitute.

"Like Mushā' etc.," because it is a case for ijtihād; therefore a Hanafi sectary has the option of decreeing the validity or nullity of the waqf of Mushā' because of the divergence of preference. For, when there are, with regard to a particular question, two opinions both of which are pronounced correct, it is permitted to give the jatwa and the judgment in accordance with either of them. (Bahr and the author of the Tanwīr-al-Absār).

"And moveables, etc., $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ ": And likewise is valid the waqf of every moveable independently wherein there is $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ of people, for instance, axes, shovels, nay, also dirhams and dinars. I say nay, furthermore, the Qadis have been parected. by royal command to decree in favour of its validity as is laid down in the Ma'rūdāt of the Mufti Abu'l-Su'ūd. And also what is sold by measure, etc., etc.

In the Khulāsah it is stated that if a person makes wagi of a cow directing that the produce of her milk and butter should be given to the poor, if people are accustomed to that

('Adah), I should expect it to be valid.

"And a cauldron and a bier": and its pall, and copies of the Qur'an and books, because Ta'amul overrules analogy in consequence of the saying of the Prophet, "Whatever is good in the sight of the Muslims is good in the sight of God." "Unlike those articles wherein there is no Ta'amul," e.g., clothes and household goods. This is the view of Muhammad, and the fatwá is in accordance therewith

In the Bazzāziyyah it is laid down that the wagt of woollen

clothes for the poor is valid.

XXX. THE RADD-AL-MUH'TAR (III, p. 406, Edition Cairo).

"And is valid, etc., resting house": The apparent meaning is the validity of their waqf independently, and this is supported by the fact that in the Fath-al-Qadir which quotes the Khulāsah this instance is enumerated along with the cases of the wagf of moveables with respect to which there was Ta'amul. commentator (author of the Durr-al-Mukhtar), therefore, ought to have mentioned this instance after the statement of the author (of the Tanwir-al-Abṣār), "and moveables wherein there is Ta'amul," so that it may not be imagined that it is a waqf subsidiary to the resting-house, as has been imagined by the author of the Bahr-al-Rā'iq when he says, etc. If he sells a disabled slave and buys with his price another in his stead, it is valid Similarly water-wheels and

implements may be sold and with their price may be pur-

chased what is more beneficial to the waqf.

"As is valid the waqf of Musha", etc.": and it will become unanimous by the decree of a judge. The divergence with regard to the waqf of Mushā' is based on the stipulation of delivery and its absence, because partition is its completion. Abū Yūsuf holds it valid because he does not make delivery a condition, and Muhammad holds it invalid because of his making delivery a conditionand we have stated above that the occasion of the divergence is with respect to what is capable of division, unlike what is not capable of it, and the latter is, therefore, unanimously valid except in the case of a mosque or a cemetery.

"Because it is a case for ijtihād": i.e., ijtihād is permitted because of the absence of its being in opposition to any express

text or *limā* (consensus of jurists).

Therefore the Hanafi sectary etc.' therefore it is stated in the Durar in the Book on the "Duties of a Judge" where the discourse is upon a judgment of a judge contrary to his school that it means contrary to the principles of the school, e.g., when a Hanafi gives judgment according to the school of al-Shaff's. But if a Hanafi gives judgment according to the view of Abū Yūsuf or Muhammad or others like them from amongst the companions of the Imām, then it is not a judgment contrary to his opinion.

"Two opinions, both of which are pronounced correct":
i.e., where the words whereby the correctness is pronounced are
equal; otherwise it is decidedly preferable to follow that which
is more emphatic in the pronouncement of the correctness, e.g.,
when one of the two opinions is pronounced correct by the employment of the expression "it is correct," and the other by that
of the expression "in accordance therewith is the fatura," the
latter is the stronger. Similarly, if one of them occurs in the
texts or in the "Conspicuous reports," or is adopted by the
majority, or is more suitable to the people, then if this and
the view opposed to it are both correct, it is decidedly preferable to adopt it, as already stated at the commencement of
this work.

"One of them": i.e., any of the two opinions he likes, but if he decides a particular case according to one of them, he has not the option of deciding that very case according to the other view. The Muftl is like the judge in this respect. He should keep in view what is more convenient and advantageous. This is the meaning of the dictum that the Muftl gives his fativa in accordance with what is beneficial, i.e., advantageous in a reli-

gious, not temporal, sense.

"Every moveable independently": both disciples are agreed as to the validity of the wayf of those moveables which are subsidiary to land; just as there is no difference of opinion as to the validity of waqf of implements of warfare or of war-horses, because of the well-known traditions to that effect. The difference of opinion is with reference to the lawfulness of a wagf of other kinds of moveable property. For according to Abu Yusuf. wagi of such moveables is not valid; whereas according to Muhammad those moveables, wherein there is Ta'āmul may lawfully be made wagf of. This view has been adopted by the majority of jurists of all countries as is mentioned in the Hidayah; and it is the correct view as is mentioned in the Is'af, and this is the opinion of the majority of the masters as is mentioned in the Zahiriyyah; for analogy (qiyas) may be abandoned in consequence of Ta'amul. The Mujiaba quotes from al-Siyar that according to Muhammad the way of moveables is unrestrictedly valid but that according to Abu Yusuf, the wagf of those moveables is valid as to the dedication of which there is Tatamed. Fuller details of this will be found in the Bahr. What has first been

stated however as being the opinion of the two discussed as that which is generally known as being theirs.

Wast of Dishams and Dinars'. The opinion that the want of dirhams and dinars is valid is attributed in al-Khulusuk to al-Ansari, who was one of the companions of Zufar. In the Fatawa of Qadi Khan this has been attributed to Zufar (himself) when he says. "It is reported from Zufar." This is the statement of al-Shurunbulaliyab. The author in his Manh says:—As Ta'amul has arisen in the Turkish dominions and other countries in our days to make waqf of dirhams and dinars, these have come under the dictum of Muhammad according to which is the jatva, viz., that any moveable wherein there is Ta'amul may be made waqt of as will readily be understood. There is no necessity, therefore, to say that the validity of wagt of these things rest specially on the authority of Zufar as reported by al-Ansari, and God knows best. Our master, the author of the Bahr, has given his decision as to the validity of waqt of dirhams and dinars without making any mention of any divergence of opinion. Here ends what is mentioned in the Manh. Al-Ramli thus comments on this: To place dirhams and dinars under the category of those moveables which it is the practice to make waqf of, is not without some doubt, since they are of those things from which no profit can be derived, keeping them at the same time in the possession of the dedicator, and the fact that the author of the Bahr has already given his jatwa (decision) as to the validity of wagt of those things without mentioning any difference of opinion does not show that these are included in the things to which the dictum of Muhammad (according to which fatura is given) applies, viz., the validity of making waqf of articles wherein there is Ta'amul; since it is possible that he had adopted the opinion of Zufar and decided accordingly. The argument cited in al-Manh and based on the question of the cow which is mentioned below is rebutted by what we have already said, for it is possible to make use of its milk and butter and yet to preserve its substance. However, if the decision of a judge is obtained, every difference will be removed. End of the passage in an abridged form. I say coins cannot be made determinate by the simple act of specifying them, therefore although it is not possible to make use of them and retain the original, yet their substitute always exists since they cannot be made specific. They are therefore, as good as if they had permanent existence. and there is no doubt as to their being moveable property. Since there has already been Ta'amul with respect to them, they are included among the things which Muhammad had declared to be lawful to make waqf of. It is for this reason, seeing that Muhammad had given examples of things with respect to which Taramul had arisen in his age, the author of the Fastal-Quair says that some douters of law have added to those mentioned by Muhammad other moveables when they caw

the prevalence of Ta'amul with respect to them in their time. He (the author of Fath-al-Qadir) mentions the case of dedicating a cow stated below and that of coins and measurable articles when he says, "It is stated in al-Khulāsah: a man makes waqf of a cow on condition that the milk and butter obtained from it should be given to wayfarers. It was answered, "If this happens in a place where wagt of such things prevails it is expected that such waqf should be valid." It is related of al-Ansari, a disciple of Zufar, that he was asked concerning a man who made wagf of money or articles capable of being measured and weighed, whether his wagt was valid. He answered, "Yes." He was asked, "And how?" answered, "The money should be laid out in business (Mudarabah) and the income therefrom distributed in charity in the way laid down in the deed of waqf. Those articles which are capable of being measured or weighed may be sold, and their price given likewise in business or as capital stock." He adds that according to this analogy, it would be possible to make waqf of a measure of wheat on condition that it should be lent out to the poor, who do not possess seeds, so that they may sow them for themselves, and when it is harvest time the quantity lent out would be taken from them and afterwards given to other poor persons—in this way perpetually.

From this becomes evident the correctness of what the author has mentioned, viz., their inclusion among the moveables whose waqi has been recognized in practice according to the dictum of Muḥammad, in conformity with which fatwā is given. That they should have specially ascribed it to Zufar in reporting it from him is because it (waqi of dirhams and dinārs) had not become recognized at that time, and because he was the first to give it as his opinion that such waqi was valid. Al-Nahr says:—"According to the preceding dictum of Muḥammad it would not be lawful to make waqi of that, i.e., waqi of wheat, in Egyptian lands as this is absolutely unknown. Yes, indeed, the waqi of dirhams and dinārs is recognized in Turkish coun-

tries."

"Because analogy is abandoned in consequence of $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ ": according to analogy waqf of moveables is not valid as perpetuity is a condition of waqf, whereas moveables cannot exist perpetually. $Ta'\bar{a}mul$ according to al-Bahr, whose authority is al-Tahrīr, means the more frequent in use. It is stated in the commentaries of al-Biri, quoting from the $Mabs\bar{u}t$, "What is established in practice has the same authority as that which is established by a text (of the Qur'ān or traditions). A fuller discussion of this subject will be found in our treatise, entitled Nashr-al-'Arf, etc.—"Basing of certain rules on what is recognized in practice." It is evident from the case of the cow, that a new practice [which comes into existence at any time or place] is taken into account. It is not, therefore, necessary that the practice

should have existed from the time of the Companions. Such is also the evident conclusion from what we have already said that some doctors of law have added other moveables in which Ta-'āmul has arisen in their time. According to this, what is obvious is to take into consideration the practice in some place where, or at some time when, the practice came to be recognized and not otherwise. Thus the wagf of dirhams is practised in Turkish countries and not in our country, and the waqf of axes and spades was practised in the age of the ancients, but it is not heard of in our time. Therefore it would appear that it is not valid now, and that if it should be found rarely it should not be taken into consideration, since it has been already stated that Ta'amul means "the more frequent in The reasoning is false. "In consequence of the use." saying of the Prophet '': reported by Ahmad, etc. "And household goods," i.e., that from which some use could be had; thus it is a conjunction of a general term to a particular; so it includes what is used in the house, e.g., household goods like beds, carpets, mats, other than those used in a mosque, vessels and cooking pots. Yes, the waqt of brass vessels have come to be recognized. and the ancients have expressly declared the validity of the waqt of vessels and cooking pots required for washing the dead.

"And this," i.e., the validity of waqt of moveables recog-

nized in practice.

"The Bahr has assimilated boats to furniture": that is to say, it is not valid, but the Master of our Masters al-Sā'ihānī says that they have recognized the practice of their waqf; so there

is no doubt as to its validity.

It appears that the practice arose after the time of the author of al-Bahr. And in al-Manh the waqt of a building without its site has been assimilated to moveables whose waat has been recognized. Similarly the waqf of trees without the land, because they are moveables with respect to which there is Ta'āmul.

"It is valid to make wagf of woollen clothes": I say in our age, some of the Mutawallis have made waqf of furs for the benefit of the Muezzins at night in winter. Such a waqf should be declared valid, especially according to what has been reported This quotation from Sharh-al-Multaqá should from al-Zāhidī. be especially considered, i.e., what has been mentioned by al-Zāhidī in al-Mujtabá concerning the validity of waqi of moveables unrestrictedly according to Muhammad.

.... "It is valid if they could be counted": This condition is based on the rule stated by Shams al-A'immah, viz., when the object of wagf is stated, it is indispensable that indigence should be expressly mentioned, either actually, e.g., the poor, or according to usage amongst people, e.g., orphans or confirmed valetudinaries, because usually they are poor. Therefore it is valid for the benefit of the rich and the poor amongst them, if they

could be counted, otherwise for the poor only.

In It is reported from Muhammad that what cannot be counted is ten, and from Abū Yūsuf hundred, and that is the view accepted by some. Some say it is forty. Some say it is eighty. The faturd is to the effect that it should be left to the discretion of the judge—Is āf and the Bahr (Radd-al-Muhtār, iii, p. 409, Ed. Cairo).

XXXI. THE TAHTAWI (II, 539, Ed. Cairo)

The general view is that it is Muhammad who holds the validity of the waqf of moveables whose waqf has been recognized and that Abū Yūsuf denies it. And it is reported in the Mujtabā that it is Muhammad who holds the validity of the waqf of moveables unrestrictedly and Abū Yūsuf declares it valid when there is Ta'āmul respecting it. The apparent meaning of al-Nahr is to limit the validity of the waqf of moveables to the countries where their waqf has become recognized. This view has been controverted by Abū'l-Su'ūd, which see.

"To pass a decree with respect to it": i.e., with respect to the waqi of dirhams and dinārs, i.e., their validity. "Like clothes": The case of woollen clothes mentioned below is special [their waqi being valid in consequence of later $Ta'\bar{a}mul$].

"And furniture": it is that of which use can be made from amongst such moveables the practice of making waqf of which has not been recognized, i.e., goloshes and mats on which people sit in a place other than a mosque and the like. In the Bahr it is laid down that animals and gold and silver including ornaments were excluded [at the time of Muhammad] from being fit subjects of waqf, because their waqf is not perpetual. In the Sharh-al-Hamawi it is laid down that Ta'āmul having arisen regarding the waqf of tools of ironsmiths, their waqf should be valid.

"And this," i.e., the details stated above. "In the Bahr wagf of boat has been assimilated to furniture": as there was no practice of making wagf of it in the time of the author of al-Bahr. But in our time the practice has arisen with regard to ships of the Red Sea. For some of them are made wagf of for transporting grains destined for the two Sanctuaries (i.e., Mecca and Medina). "It is valid to make wagf of woollen clothes for the benefit of the poor."

XXXII. THE FATAWA 'ALAMGIRI (II, pp. 462, 464, Ed. Calcutta).

If the slave (i.e., an endowed slave) is disabled from work the Mutawalli may sell him and buy with his price another slave instead. If he cannot find a slave in his stead for that

price, there is no harm in his adding to it something from the profits of the lands. Similar is the rule applicable to the case of beasts of burden, implements of husbandry when dedicated

along with the land (p. 463).

If the slave is killed and the Mutawalli takes his bloodmoney, he should buy with it another slave; thus it is laid down in the Fath-al-Qadir . . . As for the waqf of moveables independently, if they be horses or arms their waqf is valid. With respect to articles other than those, if they be things the practice of making waqf of which is not recognized, e.g., clothes and animals, their waqf is not valid according to But if their waqf is recognized (e.g., axes, shovels, a bier with its pall, such vessels and pots as are required for washing the dead, and copies of the Qur'an), according to Abū Yūsuf their wagf is not valid, but according to Muhammad it is valid. and the generality of jurists including the Imam al-Sarakhsi follow it. Thus it is laid down in the Khulasah, and this is the accepted view, and the fatwá is in accordance with the view of Muhammad, etc. Wagf of a bier, etc. Wagf of Qur'an, etc. Waqf of books, etc. Waqf of a cow, etc. valid like the waqf of the water of a public fountain. Waqi of a bull . . . not valid. Waqi of building in land, etc. Waqf of shops in a bazar, etc. valid.

Waqf of slaves and slave-girls for the service of a resting-house, valid. As for the waqf of that from which no profit can be derived except by its destruction, like gold and silver and eatables and drinkables, its waqf is not valid, according to the generality of jurists; and by gold and silver is meant dirhams and dinars and what is not ornament. Thus it is laid down in the Fath-al-Qadīr. And if a person makes a waqf of dirhams or what is estimated by measure or clothes, it is not valid, and it is said that where they have recognized it fatwa is given in favour of

its validity. . . . (Vol. II, pp. 462-64).

XXXIII. And it is laid down in the Fatāwá of Abu'l-Layth: when a person makes a waqf of a cow for the benefit of a resting-house, stipulating that what comes out of her in the shape of milk and butter should be given to wayfarers, some of our masters say, "If it was in a place where such a waqf prevailed, I should expect it to be valid"; but other jurists declare their validity unrestrictedly because the practice of making such a waqf has arisen in the countries of the Muslims (Vol. VI, p. 540).

THE HADITH.

XXXIV. THE 'UMDAT-AL-QARI (Vol. VI, p. 516, Ed. Cairo).

Text: Chapter on the waqf of beasts of burden, was horses, camels, commodities, and coins. Commentary: i.e., this is a

chapter which explains the waqf of beasts of burden, etc. By this heading he indicates the validity of the waqf of moveables. The word $kur\bar{a}$ means war-horses. The word $'ur\bar{u}d$ is the plural of 'ard, and it means commodities other than coin. The word $\bar{e}amit$ is the opposite of $n\bar{a}tiq$. It is used here in the sense of money or coin.

Text: Al-Zuhrī was asked: A man dedicates a thousand dīnārs in the way of God and makes them over to his slave, a tradesman, for investment in some trade, the profits to go to the poor and his relations by way of charity. Can that man lawfully eat of the profits of the said thousand even if the profits had not been given in charity to the poor? He answered: He

cannot eat anything out of it.

XXXV. THE FATH-AL-BARI (Vol. II, p. 40, Ed. Cairo).

[The Fath-al-Bārī reproduces with further details the remarks of the 'Umdat-al-Qārī and replies to the objection of al-Ismā'īlī that no use can be made of coins without their substance being transformed into something else in the following terms:] To restrict the use of coins to the only way which he indicates can not be admitted, for it is possible to derive benefit from coins by making an advantageous use of them, e.g., by making waqf of such coins as women are allowed to wear, in which case the waqf is valid as the original is detained while the women can derive benefit from them by wearing them when wanted.

XXXVI. IBID. (Vol. XI, p. 31, Ed. Delhi; p. 408 of the $Umdat-al-Q\bar{a}r\bar{i}$).

Text: If he makes a sadaqah or waqf of part of his property or part of his slaves or animals, it is valid. This chapter deals with the validity of the waqf of moveables.... The reason of the validity of the waqf of mushā' and of moveables being inferred from the above text is the employment of the phrase "part of his slaves or animals." The following case will also be included, viz., if he were to make waqf of part of a slave or of an animal....it is valid according to those who declare the waqf of moveables valid and the dedicator shall be referred to for the purpose of specification.

SHI'AH AUTHORITIES.

XXXVII. THE SHARA'I' AL-ISLAM (p. 318, Ed. Cal.).

On Commodate.

1. The subject will be treated in four sections—
1st—The lender....; 2nd—The borrower....; 3rd—The
thing ('ayn) lent, which is anything that is lawful to make use
of consistently with the preservation of its substance ('ayn).

IBID. (p. 334).

It is lawful to hire dirhams and dinars, if a legitimate use can be made of them consistently with the preservation of their substance ('ayn).

XXXVIII. IBID. (p. 234, Cal. Edn.).

Four conditions attach to the subject-matter—

1st-that it must be 'ayn (defined specific property);

2nd—it must be a property which a Muslim may lawfully possess;

3rd—must be such as benefit may be derived therefrom consistently with the continued subsistence of the original; and

4th—delivery of its possession must be possible.

As an illustration of the first condition, waqf of what is not 'ayn is not valid, for example dayn; also if he were to say, 'I make waqf of a horse or a camel or a house' without specifying it. It is valid to make waqf of land, clothes, furniture and lawful instruments, the principle being that waqf of anything from which lawful use can be derived consistently with the preservation of its substance is valid. Similarly it is valid to make waqf of owned dogs and cats as it is possible to derive benefit from them. But it is not lawful to make waqf of a pig as no Muslim can have it. Nor is it valid to make waqf of runaway slaves on account of the impossibility of delivery. Is it valid to make waqf of dinārs and dirhams? Some say 'No,' and this is the more apparent view, because their only use is to spend them. But others say, 'It is valid,' for we may imagine them to have some use consistently with their preservation.

XXXIX. THE MASALIK-AL-AFHAM (Teheran Ed., p. 365).

Is the waqf of dinārs and dirhams valid? The more weighty opinion is that they are valid. Since these uses (i.e., uses to which dirhams, etc., can be put without destroying their substance) are familiar and that there are more important ways of using them does not prevent their being made waqf of in this way.

MĀLIKI LAW.

XL. THE MUDAWWANAH (Vol. II, p. 103, Ed. Cairo).

I put the following question to Mālik, or it was put to him: A man makes waqf of a hundred dinārs with the object of lending them to people who would return the same to the dedicator, and so on. Is zakāt to be paid on those dinārs? He answered, "Yes, my opinion is that zakāt should be paid." I asked him, "What if a man were to dedicate a hundred

diners to be distributed in the way of God, or for the poor and they remain for a whole year, is zakāt to be taken on them?" He answered, "No, these are all for distribution; they are not like the first."

XLI. THE MUKHTASAR OF SIDI KHALIL (p. 184, Ed. Paris).

Valid is the waqf of any property even when taken on hire and even if it were an animal or a slave, such as a slave dedicated for the service of the sick, provided no injury is intended to him thereby. As regards food grain and similar things there is some hesitation.

XLII. THE DARDIR (Vol. IV, pp. 70 to 73, margin, Ed. Cairo).

It is valid to make waqf of any property in one's possession or anything capable of being possessed (mamluk) even if conditionally, as when a man says, "If I come into possession of so and so's house, it shall be waqf "; or if the waqf be part of a joint property provided it is capable of division. The dedicator will be compelled to divide if so desired by his co-sharer.

Where no division is possible there are two opinions [i.e., that it is valid and that it is not valid], both of which have been declared to be "preferable." Those who declare it to be valid, say that the dedicator would be forced to sell if his co-sharer so desired, and with the proceeds a property similar

to the waqf should be purchased.

Under "property in one's possession or anything capable of being possessed (mamluk)," the author means to include both possession of the substance and possession of the usufruct thereof. That is why he goes on to say, "even though!" the property indicated by mamluk be "by hire," as when he rents a house for a number of years. In this case he can make waqf of the use of the house during this period. This is because perpetuity is not a condition of waqf as shall be stated below. The words "by hire" include the case of one who rents a house that has been made a waqf for a certain period. He can dedicate the use of it to any person other than the first during the said period. But the person for whom it is dedicated cannot himself dedicate the use of it, to which he is entitled, and that is because what is appropriated cannot be re-appropriated [by the beneficiary]. "And even " though the property be an animal or a slave": both of these are included in the general term; that is to say, the waqf of this is valid and must be given effect to: and likewise clothes

In imitation of the Arabic original the words of the text of the Mulhtagar are put within inverted commas to distinguish them from those of the commentary.

according to our school, "as dedicating a slave for the sick," that is for their services; provided that the master does not intend thereby to do injury to his slave, otherwise it shall not be valid. The same applies also to a slave-girl dedicated for the service of female patients, in which case it shall not be lawful for the master to have intercourse with her, because by dedicating her, her use passes to others; just as in the case of a slave-girl taken on loan or pledged. "As regards" the validity of things like food grain, the identity of which cannot be recognized if removed from one's sight, as for instance, "coins" (and this [i.e., the validity] is the accepted opinion as indicated by the words of the author when treating of zakāt: "Zakāt is taken on 'Ayn, i.e., gold or silver that has been dedicated for the purpose of giving it as free loans), or the non-validity of such things as inexpedient or illegal; "there is some hesitation," but it is said that this hesitation is as regards fungibles other than money, for as regards money there is no hesitation whatever, it being absolutely valid to make waqf of it as it is the express teaching of the Mudawwanah. By waqf here is meant waqf for the purpose of lending out. The replacing of it by money of the same value is considered as "preservation of substance," but if it were to be dedicated with the condition that the identical coins should be preserved, it is not valid according to the unanimous opinion of the doctors as there is no legal advantage in such a waqf.

XLIII. THE DASUQI (Vol. IV, p. 73).

"By waqf here is meant waqf for the purpose of lending out".

By this he wishes to indicate that the hesitation is in respect of a waqf made with the intention of use being made of it and then replaced by coins of the same value; but when a waqf of it is made with the condition that the original should be preserved, as for instance, when it is dedicated for the decoration of shops, such wagf is unanimously forbidden and, if made. it would be invalid.

XLIV. THE DARDIR (Vol. I, p. 412, margin).

Zakāt should be taken by way of obligation on 'Ayn, i.e., gold or silver coins, that has been appropriated for the purpose of being lent out; that is to say, the Waqif or the Mutawalli should pay the Zakāt out of the money itself, if one year has passed from the time it has come into his possession.

XLV. THE DASTQI (ibid.).

The words "dedicated for the purpose of lending" means that it is dedicated so that the needy may receive it as a free loan, and when they can afford to do so replace it by paying the value. It is all the same if dedicated to specified persons or persons not specified. The author's statement is based on the accepted opinion that gold and silver coins may be made waqf of for the purpose of lending.

XLVI. DASTQI (ibid.).

The gist of the whole matter is this, that as for coins dedicated for the purpose of lending, if no one takes them out as a loan, the Mutawalli or the Wāqif should pay Zakāt on them every year, if one whole year passes since they come into his possession.

SHĀFI'I LAW.

XLVII. THE GHAYAT AL-BAYAN (Cairo Edition, p. 228).

To constitute a valid waqf the property appropriated should be a definite specific substance ('ayn) capable of being made use of while the original remains; it should not be made dependent on a condition; and the person or object for which it is made should be in existence at the time.

XLVIII. THE SHARH GHAYAT-AL-BAYAN (p. 228).

Chapter on Waqt.

Lexicographically it means detention.

In law it means the detention for a lawful object of property, from which it is possible to derive benefit along with the continuance of its original, by divesting the appropriator of his power of disposition. Its basis is the following tradition of Muslim: "When the son of Adam dies, his good work ceases except from three sources: (a) continuous charity, (b) or knowledge from which benefit is derived, (c) or a pious son praying for him." "Continuous charity" is construed by the Ulemas to indicate waqf. The property appropriated should be a definite specific substance capable of being made use of while the original remains. Therefore it would not be lawful to make waqf of musical instruments, a trained dog, grain, sweet-smelling gathered plants, nor the waqf of dirhams and dinars. But it would be lawful to make waqf of landed property, moveables, undivided shares, divided property, snares, springs, wells, fruit trees, animals for their milk, wool, hair and eggs, bull for covering the cows, etc.

HANAFI LAW.

XLIX. THE QUDURI (pp. 133 and 134).

....And the waqf of landed property is valid, and the waqf of what is capable of being moved and what changes in form is

not valid, except when there is Ta'āmul of the people regarding it. And Abū Yūsuf has laid down that when a person makes waqf of land with its cows and cultivators, if they are his slaves, it is valid. And Muḥammad holds that it is valid to make waqf of horses and arms.

L. THE JAWHARAT-AL-NAYYIRAH (II, p. 19, Ed. Lucknow).

"And waqf of landed property (' $aq\bar{a}r$) is valid," because it is lasting; "and waqf of what is capable of being moved and what is liable to change is not lawful"; since such property is

not lasting, therefore its waqf is not valid.

Al-Khujandi holds that the waqf of moveables is not valid except (a) when subsidiary to something else, as when a person makes a waqf of land with the bulls and serfs for its purposes; then they become waqf along with the land as accessories; (b) or when the practice (' $\bar{a}dah$) arises of making waqf of them, e.g., a spade for digging graves or a bier and the pall of a bier.

If a person makes a waqf of standing trees it is not valid according to analogy, but it is valid according to Istilesan... It is stated in the $W\bar{a}qi'at$ that when a person makes waqf of a bull in favor of the inhabitants of a village for the purpose of covering their cows, it is not valid because the waqf of moveables are not valid except of such whose waqf is recognized (Ta'āruf) and there is no recognized practice with respect to

this. But it is valid according to al-Shāfi'i.

And Muhammad holds that it is valid to make waqf of horses and arms, etc., and they say that Abū Yūsuf agrees with him and this is due to Istihsān according to him. And Muhammad has laid down that the waqf of moveables wherein there is Taʻāmul is valid, e.g., pickaxes, spades, shovels, saws, a bier and its pall, cauldrons, copies of the Qur'ān and books. According to Abū Yūsuf it is not valid, but the majority of jurists of all countries follow the view of Muhammad. And when a waqf is valid, its sale is not valid nor its transfer, except when it is Mushā' according to Abū Yūsuf.

LI. THE FATĀWÁ AL-SIRĀJIYYAH (pp. 120-121, Ed. Lucknow).

Waqf of moveables is not valid except as accessories (to land), or except when it is recognized in practice. A man makes waqf of his horse for use as a led-horse in the way of God. This is valid having regard to recognized practice. And similarly if he makes waqf of weapons (of war) or horses or of copies of the Qur'an, or if he makes waqf of land with the right of way or of implements of husbandry, this is valid.

LII. THE SHARM AL-WIQAYAH (Ed. Cal., pp. 256-257).

It is the opinion of Muhammad that it is valid to make want of such moveables with respect to which there is Ta'āmul such as a pickaxe, a spade, a shovel, a saw, a bier and its pall, a pot, a cauldron and a copy of the Qur'ān. The majority of the jurists of various countries have accepted his view.

LIII. THE ZAKHTRAT-AL-'UQBA' (ibid.).

Muḥammad says, as for those moveables the waqf of which has been recognized by people, it is valid to make waqf thereof by way of Istiḥsān, as in the case of the things mentioned in the text. Those things the waqf of which has not been recognized in practice cannot be made waqf of, e.g., clothes, animals and other household goods. The view of al-Shāfi'i, Aḥmad and Mālik is that the waqf of moveables independently is valid, provided that the moveable is something of which use can be made consistently with the preservation of the original, of what-

ever nature it may be.

They are unanimous that it is not valid to make wanf of dirhams and dinars. The reason of al-Shafi'i's view rests on the analogy of land and war-horses, the quality common to both being the possibility of making use of them consistently with the preservation of the substance. But we (Hanafis) say that this analogy is weak, as it is the analogy of what endures on what does not endure. Thus it is stated in the Bayaniyyah. It is gathered from the Mi'rājiyyah that in the case of the two precious metals, that which is not valid to make waqf of is the coined dirhams and dinars. But when made into ornaments, it is valid to make waqf of them, according to Ahmad and al-Shafi'i. seeing that Hafsah, the daughter of 'Umar and wife of the Prophet, bought ornaments for 20,000 dirhāms and made waqf of them for the benefit of the womenfolk of the family of al-Khattab Hence she paid no poor-rate on them. According to Ahmad, it is not lawful to make waqf of these even, and he denies the authority of this tradition. It has been said, if we allow the hiring of dirhams and dinars as valid, it is equally valid to make waqf of them. But this is of no weight. Here ends the quotation from the Dirayah. And it has been said in the Bazzāziyyah, that if a man makes waqf of dirhams and dinārs it is valid In the Fatāwá of Qādī Khān, it is stated from Zufar that a man makes wanf of dirhams . . . it is valid. But we say that the way to reconcile what has been mentioned in these two authentic works, viz., that it is lawful to make waqf of coins and food grains with what has been mentioned in the commentaries on the Hidayah, viz., that it is not valid, is that the commentators could not imagine that it is possible to make use of them consistently with the preservation of the original, whereas the propounder of the view expressed in these two

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works does imagine it to be so. But the true answer is that there is no need to reconcile the two views, as the propounders of the two views belong to rival schools [i.e., the Hanaff and the Shāfi'1] as you see; whereas reconciliation is only necessary when it is a question of views propounded by people belonging to the same school. The matter requires critical consideration.

LIV. THE FATAWA KHAYRIYYAH (Vol. I, p. 132, 2nd Ed., Govt. Press, Būlāq, Cairo).

The following question was asked: A man makes waqf of a moveable in which there is Ta'āmul for the benefit of his minor children and after them for a perpetual charitable object. He then appoints a testamentary guardian for his abovementioned children, and directs him to look after the subjectmatter of the waqf and protect it till one of the children attains the age of discretion. Then the dedicator dies, and the testamentary guardian performs his duties and then diswithout specifying the waqf property, and it perishes. Then one of the children attains the age of discretion. Will the guardian be held responsible for indemnity realizable from his estate or will he not?.....

Answer—.... You know that this testamentary guardian was the Mutawalli of the said waqf. Now it is expressly laid down that in case the Mutawalli dies without specifying the proceeds of the waqf, he is not liable for indemnity. But in case he dies without specifying the money of istibdāl he will be liable, and from his liability for money of istibdāl it has been inferred that he will be liable for indemnity also when the subject-matter of waqf is dīnārs.

LV. THE TANQIH-AL-HAMIDIYYAH (Vol. I, p. 120, Edn. Cairo).

Question.—It was asked: A woman makes waqf of an ascertained amount of dirhams for the benefit of two children

of her daughter Is such a waqf valid?

Answer.—Yes, the Grand Muftl of the Ottoman Empire, the late 'Ali Effendi, had given fatwá of its validity. And it is stated in the Fatāwá Qāḍā Khān amongst the waqf of moveables: Zufar was asked about a man making waqf of dirhams or grain or what is weighable or measurable. He said it is valid . . . A similar statement is to be found in the Durar quoting the Khulāsah from al-Anaṣārī who was a companion of Zufar.

LVI. THE FATAWA QUNYAH (p. 196, Edn. Calcutta).

A man makes a waqf of 150 dinars for the benealt of the sick. The gold should be handed over to a man in order to

make it yield profit by being employed in business (mud-arabah¹), the profit being given to the sick--Muhit. The waqf of dirhams and articles sold by measure and weight is valid in the same way.

LVII. THE FATAWA BAZZAZIYYAH (MS. in the Calcutta Madrasah, p. 319).

If a man makes waqf of dirhams and dinārs or of food grains or of articles sold by measure or weight, it is valid. The coins and the price of what is not coin (e.g., articles sold by measure or weight), after their sale, should be invested in mudārabah or bidā'ah, and the profit arising therefrom should be spent for the purposes of the waqf.

LVIII. THE WAQI'AT-AL-MUFTIN (p. 74, Cairo Ed.).

It is reported from Zufar that when a person makes a waqf of dirhams or grain or what is estimated by measure

or weight, it is velid.

Marginal note 1.—It is laid down in the Fatāwá Nātifī on the authority of Muḥammad b. 'Abd-Allāh al-Anṣārī, one of the companions of Zufar, that the waqf of dirhams and grain and what is estimated by measure and weight is valid.

LIX. FATĀWÁ MAHDIYYAH (Ed. Cairo).

Question.—The following question was asked on behalf of the agent of the Finance Department:—A native of Mecca named Ahmad Jalabi is the Mutawalli of a house which is a private waqf. The house is acquired by the Government to include it in the palace of the wife of our late great ruler; and as it is a private waqf, the payment of its price has been withheld for the purpose of its exchange (istibdāl). Now the agent of the owner of the above-mentioned house has submitted a petition to the effect that the remaining portion of the waqf buildings stands in need of necessary repairs, which would cost more than 4,000 qirsh, the price of the above-mentioned house; and he (the agent) prays for the payment of that price for the purpose of repairing the above-mentioned places because of the principle of preserving the waqf at the sacrifice of a part.....

Answer.—When a piece of waqf land has been exchanged in a valid and lawful way, or when a usurper usurps it and pays its value, neither the price nor the value of the land should be

¹ For the technical meaning of $mu\underline{d}\bar{a}rabah$ and $bi\underline{d}\bar{a}'ahd\bar{a}$, see the Chapter on Partnership in the $Hid\bar{a}yah$ or any other work on Muslim Law.

spent for repairs, but another piece of land should be purchased which should be waqf in the stead of the original waqf. The price of the débris, however, when sold on account of the building being difficult to restore or through fear of loss of the débris, may be spent for repairs and the Mutawalli of the waqf may take the price and then spend it for repairing the rest of the want property. In the Tangih-al-Hamidiyyah it is laid down at the beginning of the chapter on waqf after a statement from the Fatawa-'l- Lutfi: Its logical conclusion is the validity of expending the money obtained in exchange, for repairing the waqf. The matter requires critical consideration. exchange (istibdal) and sale are one and the same as regards their final result, and God knows best. I say that Shaykh Ismā'il has also answered similarly in his Fatawa, viz., that repairs should be made out of the money obtained in exchange, and borrowing should not be resorted to, as it is unnecessary, seeing that there is money belonging to the waqf. And what has been stated in the Fatawá-'l-Lutfi is as follows: And sometimes the dirhams obtained in exchange are spent in making necessary repairs of the waqf with the permission of a Cadi authorized to give it; and they are replaced out of the profits of the waqf after the repairs in order to purchase with it something which would be waqf like the original waqf, and it will not be property belonging to the beneficiaries of the waqf, nor inheritance. (Vol. II. p. 524).

LX. THE VALIDITY OF WAQF OF MUSHA' EVEN WHEN CAPABLE OF DIVISION.

The following question was put on behalf of the Bayt-al-Māl of Egypt: A woman makes waqf of half of her house in Cairo for some purpose, and the other half she gives to her husband what is the order with respect to it?

Answer.—There is divergence of opinion concerning the waqf of Mushā'; but the judge may decree its validity relying on the view of the second Imām, Abū Yūsuf. Therefore when the fact of the woman's having made waqf of half the house is proved, fulfilling its conditions, the judge is at liberty to decree the validity of the waqf and its bindingness. (Vol. II, p. 541).

LXI. Question.—A man makes waqf of half a public bath, which is Mushā', incapable of division, for his own benefit for life, then for the benefit of his children, etc... Answer.—There is divergence of opinion regarding the waqf of Mushā'. If a decree is obtained in favour of its validity, it is given effect to, as there are two views with respect to it, both of which are pronounced correct. This divergence of opinion is with regard to what is capable of division. As for that which is incapable of division as in the present case, it is valid unanimously except in the

osse of a mosque and a cemetery, as it is expressly laid down in the books of the school. (Vol. II, p. 545).

LXII. Question.—Is exchange permissible [in Egypt] when the dedicator has expressly forbidden it and there is no advan-

tage ? Answer.—(The Fatwa also includes the names and seals of Shaykh Khalil-al-Rashidi, Registrar of Fatwas, and Sheikh Muhammad al-Mansuri, the Hanafite.) There is an old divergence of opinions amongst the Ulemas regarding the exchange of waqf in the absence of any stipulation to that effect made by the dedicator. But the practice of the Cadis of Egypt is not to permit exchange at all without the sanction of the Sultan, thus acting according to what is known, viz., their being forbidden to do so. A Cadi's office demands particular regard to time, place and the circumstances of the case. A Cadi's order will not take effect with regard to a question which he is forbidden to deal with. Thus a Cadi has not the power of making exchange of the above-mentioned waqf without the sanction of some one having the authority to do so, specially in the absence of any advantage and the prohibition of the dedicator to exchange it. For verily the stipulation of the dedicator is like the express ruling of the law. It is not permitted to contravene his stipulation without any legal ground. (Vol. II, p. 559.)

LXIII. The following question was asked by the Pension Department:—The children of Sheikh 'Alī Khalifa, one of the Ulema, his wife and an Abyssinian freed woman, have certain stipends granted to them and a share of the iltizūm land, and they intend to make waqf of the same and the command of the sovereign has been issued to give effect to it. Amongst the children there are minors. Having regard to the text of the order is there any legal impediment in the way of making waqf of the shares of the five adult children of the Shaykh, etc.?

Answer.—Making waqf of illizām lands and stipends from the Bayt-al-Māl payable to persons to whom they are due is of the nature of irsād. Therefore it is valid by command of the person authorized to regulate its expenditure [i.e. the sovereign]. So when the person so authorized permits the person in whose name is the grant and who is adult, to make waqf of it in the above-mentioned way, the waqf will take effect in the terms of the order; and irsād is governed by the same principle. God knows best. (Vol. II, p. 639).

LXIV. The following question was asked by the officer in charge of the Bayt-al-Mal:—Muhammad Sadiq died leaving the Bayt-al-Mal as his heir; and amongst the things left by him, a document is found to the effect that he makes waqf of a quantity of copper or copper utensils, etc., for a certain purpose.

Now is it lawful to sell it, or is it waqf, when what is stated above is proved?

Answer.—There is divergence of opinion as regards the validity of the waqf of moveables. But the correct view followed by the majority of jurists is the validity of the waqf of that with regard to which there are Ta'āmul and usage ('ādak). Therefore of the articles stated above with respect to whichever of them there is Ta'āmul, it is valid to make waqf of them; while those with respect to which there is no Ta'āmul,

their waqf is not valid. (Vol. II, p. 655).

LXV. Our most learned master was questioned concerning a dedicator who had stipulated in his waqf its cancellation or ratification. This stipulation was called into question and the person criticizing it wanted to render the waqf null and void on account of the stipulation, saying that cancellation amounts to nullification, and thus such a stipulation renders the waqf null and void; but the judge decrees the absence of nullification and declares the waqf valid. Is it permissible after this for another judge to declare the waqf invalid, or to give a fatwá in favour of nullification or not?

He answered —The above-mentioned waqf is valid, and such is the actual practice, even though no judge had decreed its validity. But the stipulation of the dedicator reserving to himself the power of cancelling and nullifying the waqf, is an invalid stipulation, according to the accepted view adopted for fatwá; and what has been reported from the chapters on waqf of Hilāl and Khaṣṣāf to the effect that a waqf is rendered null by such a stipulation is contrary to the accepted view adopted for fatwá. This has been clearly stated by the most learned doctor Qāsim b. Qutlubghā and the Shaykh al-Tūsī in their collections of Fatāwá. And this has been reported by al-Tarsūsī from the Tātārkhāniyyah and the Fatāwá 'l-Kubrá. Furthermore, after a judge had decreed its validity it is not lawful to give fatwá in favour of its nullification and such a fatwá will not be acted upon, and God knows best.

The learned have expressly declared that when there is a difference of opinion amongst the jurists, fatwa will be given in accordance with that view which is more favourable to the waqf. And the current practice is the validity of waqf containing such a stipulation; for frequently stipulations like this are met with in waqfs whose validity is nevertheless maintained; the dedication is acted upon but the condition is ignored. Therefore the view on which reliance ought to be placed is the view in favour of the validity of waqf. (Vol. II,

753).

LXVI. The following question was asked by the Cadi of Suyūt on the 24th Muhurram, 1292 A.H:—A man owned a mill, a glass factory, both the sites and the buildings, and pertain

shares in date-trees planted in *Khirāj* land on a permanent basis. He made waqf of the property owned by him as described above, a waqf taking effect from the year 1273 A.H. for the benefit of a mosque which he commenced building Is the above-mentioned waqf valid?

Answer.—Yes, the above-mentioned waqf is valid on account of existing practice, in addition to their having been Ta'āmul with regard to the waqf of buildings and trees planted in land taken on a permanent basis without the land. Such is the case when there is no other impediment. (Vol. II, 754).

Answer.—When the waqf buildings fall into ruins and stand in need of necessary repairs, the Mutawalli is not allowed to spend anything out of the income, for the benefit of the beneficiaries, till he has made the necessary repairs, even if the dedicator made no stipulation to the effect that the Mutawalli should first of all devote the income of the waqf to repairing it. For preference is given to this over the beneficiary without there being any stipulation. If there is any such stipulation, & fortiori, preference will be given to repairs. Rather when there is such a stipulation, the Mutawalli is bound to reserve funds for future repairs, even though the waqf property may not stand in need of repairs in the present. Such is the accepted view of the jurist Abu-'l-Layth. Thus it is laid down in the Tangih al-Hāmidiyyah on the authority of the Ashbāh, that when the dedicator stipulates that preference should be given to repairs and the balance should remain for the beneficiaries, as is the case with the waqfs of Cairo, it is incumbent on the Mutawalli to reserve an amount sufficient to meet any future demand for repairs. (Vol. II, 805).

LXVIII. Answer.—There is divergence of opinion regarding the validity of the waqf of buildings and trees without their sites. But the existing practice is to decree its validity as there is Ta'āmul and recognized practice concerning it. (Vol. II, 822).

LXIX. The following question was asked by the mayoralty on the 24th Jumādá I, 1279:—The benefit of the ruling of law is sought with respect to the sale of a certain amount of money which was payable from a certain department of the Bayt-al-Māl to a woman named the Abyssinian Nasūkh, who is dead. The above-mentioned department had placed the money with the Medjidié Co. A man proved himself to be the heir of that woman after her death by decree of the Cadi. Now a Christian claims to have bought the amount from the aforesaid heir and demands the amount and its interest.

Answer.—The proceedings in this case from beginning to end are not in accordance with the requirements of law; and the sale by her heir of the amount with the Company and the

Bayt-al-Māl payable to the Abyssinian Nasūkh is not valid, under the circumstances, whether it is dayn or 'ayn. But granting that the amount was the woman's own property, and that it devolved on her heir by way of inheritance, even then the sale is bad. The contract of sale should be rescinded, and its equivalent should be returned to the purchaser, since the transaction which has taken place is sale. This is the requirement of law. But the person to whom the amount with the Company or the Bayt-al-Māl is due should take delivery of it himself. (Vol. III, p. 163).

LXX. THE ASHBAH, &c.

Know that in law many questions depend upon a consideration of usage ('Adah) or recognized practice ('Urf). So much so that they [jurists] have made it a principle [of jurisprudence]....... And several questions are concerned with this rule:—(1) What establishes usage ('Adah)? There are several minor questions connected with it: (a) There is difference of opinion concerning usage as regards menstruation, Abū Hanifah and Muḥammad holding that usage is not established except by two instances. Abū Yūsuf, on the other hand, holds that a single instance establishes it, and they [jurists] say that the fatwá is in accordance with this (b) Training a hunting dog to abstain from devouring its prey so that abstention becomes a habit ('Ādah) with him. This is established by his abstention from devouring three times (pp. 58-59, Ed. Cal.).

LXXI. DURR-AL-MUKHTAR.

The sale of written orders issued by the Diwan to the Governors for the payment of certain sums of money is not valid, unlike the sale of the shares of the Imams [which is valid], because in this case the money derived from the waqf property exists, while in the other case it is not so.—Ashbah and Qunyah. The meaning is that it is lawful for the beneficiary to sell his bread before he takes delivery of it from the supervisor. Comments of the Radd-al Muhtar on the above quotation from the Durr-al-Mukhtar: "Unlike the sale of the shares of the Imams ': shares, i.e., fixed stipends or rations out of the waqf, i.e., their sale is valid. This is contrary to what is laid down in the Sayrafiyyah. Its author was questioned as regards the sale of a fixed stipend or ration. He answered in the negative.—Taken from the margin of the Ashbah. I say that the following is the text of the Sayrafiyyah: —He [the author of the Sayrafiyyah] was questioned as to the sale of a fixed stipend or ration. He said it is not valid. For either the possessor of the hazz sells what is stated in it or the hazz (ticket) itself. There is no ground for the validity of the first as it would be the sale of something which he does not possess Nor is there any ground

for the validity of the second, as this much paper has no legal value, unlike an order on a governor, because that piece of paper has legal value. (Vol. IV, p. 19).

LXXIA. Is void the sale of property (Mål) which has no legal value (Mutaqawwim), e.g., wine, pigs, etc. A property having legal value is that from which lawful profit can be derived in accordance with the Sacred Law. (IV, p. 155).

LXXII. Lawfulness is the original character of things. (IV, 273).

LXXIII. The usage ('ādah) at that time was such. It has changed, therefore the ruling has changed. Change of usage necessitates change of rule based on tradition, so much so that were the Prophet alive, he would expressly lay it down.

Rules of law are, therefore, based on recognized practice; regard should be had to the practice of the age in question. It is quite clear that these rules are based on recognized practice; therefore in every clime and every age regard should be had to the practice of the people. (IV, 293.)

. LXXIV. A man gives his capital to be employed in *mudārabah* to an ignorant person. It is lawful for him to participate in its profits unless he becomes aware of their being acquired by unlawful means.

COMMENTS OF THE RADD-AL-MUHTAR ON "ACQUIRED BY UNLAWFUL MEANS."

This question has been clearly explained in the Tātārkhāniyyah where it is stated: "A man acquires money by unlawful means and then he purchases something with it. This may happen in five ways—(1) He delivers those very dirhams to the vendor first of all and then buys something of him with that money; (2) or he purchases the article in question before paying the price with that money and does so afterwards; (3) or he purchases the article before delivering that money and pays other dirhams; (4) or he purchases without specifying any money and pays those dirhams; (5) or he purchases with other dirhams and pays those dirhams; Abu Nagr says that the transaction is good and it is not necessary for him to give Sadaqah except in the first case. This is the view adopted by the jurist Abu-'l-Layth. But this is contrary to the "Conspicuous Report." For it is laid down in the Jami'-al-Saghir that if a man usurps a thousand and buys a slave-girl with it, and sells it for two thousand, the profit should be given in charity (Sadagah). Al-Karkhi says that the transaction is not good in the first and second cases but it is

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good in the last three. Abū Bakr says that it is not good in all the cases, but the fatwa nowadays is according to the view of al-Kharkhi in order to free people from narrow restrictions. In Walwālijiyyah it is stated that some of the jurists say that the transaction is not good in all the cases, and that is the select view, but the fatwa to-day is according to al-Karkhi's view in order to free people from narrow restrictions, unlawful gain being very common nowadays. (Vol. IV, 340).

LXXV. But you should accept what is in the Fatāwá Qādi Khān, for verily Qādi Khān belongs to the class of people competent to express opinion concerning accuracy and preference. (Vol. IV, p. 385).

LXXVI. And this [rule] changes with the change of time and place, as we see. I say, the ground on which the rule was based was fear, which is likewise absent on account of merchant vessels known in our days as steam-boats, because there is a strong presumption of safety with regard to them, so much so, that no merchant nowadays feels secure unless he ships his goods in them. When the ground is no longer existent, the rule also disappears. For, we have said before, and it will be stated later on also, that regard should be had to the recognized practice concerning the protection of deposits. Now that the recognized practice is such, it should be said that there is no difference between travelling with the deposit by land and travelling with it by steam-boat. (Vol. II, 334).

IBID. (p. 309).

LXXVII. "Al-Shāfi'i states absolutely that a creditor may take what is due to him as regard things not of the same nature as what he had given his debtor," that is to say, in either money or commodities; for as regards money, it is permissible to take it according to our school, as stated previously. Al-Quhistānī says: In this there is an indication that he may receive payment in things not of the same nature, similar in the possession of a value. This is when of greater convenience, so that we may adopt it, although not the opinion of our school, for, as al-Zāhidī says, a man may be excused if he were to follow this under necessity.

LXXVIII. THE RADD-AL-MUḤTĀR (III, p. 376).

The substance of all this is that the reason given here on the authority of al-Hidayah is based on the principle that "all things are originally lawful." This is the opinion of the Mutazilah.

IBID. (p. 377).

To ascribe the original lawfulness of things to the Mu'tazilah is at variance with what is stated in books on the Principles of Law; for, in the Tahrir of Ibn-al-Hammam it is stated that that all things are originally lawful is the authoritative view of the Hanafis and Shafi'is generally. It is also stated in the commentary on the "Principles" ($U_{\underline{s}ul}$) of al-Bazdawi by al-'Allamatal-Akmal: The majority of our doctors as well as the majority of the Shafi'i doctors say that all things which it is permissible that Law may allow or forbid, are, before the law speaks, lawful, for lawfulness is the original property of things; so that it has been declared permissible for one who has not heard of the law to that effect to eat whatever he likes. And it is to this that Muhammad alludes when he treats of compulsion. He says: "the eating of what is dead and the drinking of wine have not become unlawful except by the prohibition." So he makes lawfulness to be the original state of things and unlawfulness only an accident.

LXXIX. THE NUR-AL-ANWAR (p. 221, Ed. Lucknow).

And the condition of a valid $ijm\bar{a}'$ is the assemblage of all; and the dissent of one is an impediment like the dissent of the majority, i.e., if at the time of the meeting of the $ijm\bar{a}'$ one man expresses his dissent, his dissent will be taken into consideration and the meeting of the $ijm\bar{a}'$ will not be held because the word "people" in the saying of the Prophet, "My ummah (people) will never agree upon an error" embraces all; so it is possible the right be with the dissenter.

Note.—' Assemblage of all,' i.e., (a) all the Mujtahids; (b) and it is said that the least number whereby it (valid $ijm\bar{a}'$) is held is three and al-Sarakhsi inclines to this view because it (the number three) is the least number which connotes the idea of a multitude $(jam\bar{a}'ah)$: (c) and it is said that it (the number necessary for a valid $ijm\bar{a}'$) is two, because it (two) connotes the idea of plurality; (d) and it is said that if only one Mujtahid is to be found his opinion will amount to an $ijm\bar{a}'$ because the word (ummah) 'people' becomes applicable to him when he is the only Mujtahid; as God said, "Verily Abraham was an ummah (people) devoted to prayer."

IBID. (Lucknow Ed., p. 83).

The second kind comprises of the word "three" when applicable to words which are plural both in form and meaning, e.g. 'man,' woman,' when they are common nouns not preceded by the definite article denoting a class or species. To this class belongs also what is plural in meaning only, e.g., nation,

tribe. The minimum to which these words may be applicable is "three," because the least number connoting the idea of plurality is "three" according to the consensus (ijma") of the lexicographers. Therefore if these words are applied to less than three individuals they would be deprived of their proper signification. Some of the companions of al-Shafi'i and Malik have said that the least number implying plurality is two. Therefore it is the minimum number to which these words may apply. They rely on the saying of the Prophet, "Two and upwards make a multitude." The author replies to this by his statement that the saving of the Prophet, "Two and upwards make a multitude," applies to questions of inheritance and wills."

Note.—' Questions of imperitance,' i.e., not to lexicology because the Prophet was selft for the purpose of delivering ordinances and not for the purpose of elucidating lexicology.

IBID. (p. 243).

Istihsan (liberal construction) is based on (a) tradition, (b) $ijm\bar{a}^i$, (c) necessity, and (d) latent analogy ($qiy\bar{a}s$ Khafi). Manifest analogy ($qiy\bar{a}s$ $jal\bar{i}$) demands something, and (a) tradition, (b) $ijm\bar{a}^i$, (c) necessity, and (d) latent analogy demand its opposite. Then analogy ($qiy\bar{a}s$) should be noted. upon, but recourse should be had to istihsan (liberal construction).

IBID. (Lucknow Edn., p. 37).

The authority of the rule that a change of proprietorship causes a change of substance constructively is based on the following tradition: The Prophet visited Bartrah and she presented to him some dates, but there was a pot full of meat boiling, and the Prophet said to her, "Won't you let us have some of the meat?" She answered, "O Apostle of God, it is meat which was sent me by way of charity." He said, "It is charity for you, but present for us." He means, when you received it from the owner it was charity for you, if you give it to us it will be a present to us. From this is known that a change of proprietorship brings about a change of substance. Many questions are decided on this principle.

LXXX. DOCUMENT CONTAINING A LEGAL FATWA FROM THE GRAND MUFTI OF EGYPT.

Fee—Six Piastres.

To

His Excellency the MuftI of Egypt.

What is your opinion concerning the following case? An Indian of the Hanafi sect makes waqf of Government securities.

stocks and bonds known amongst Europeans as Rente, or of shares in trading companies, the practice of which has been recognized in our time in certain countries. Will such a waaf be valid and permissible in India if it is recognized in Turkev for instance, and is it valid to make waqf of pickaxes and shovels in our time? HASAN BEY FEHMY, Secretary to H.E. Ghāzī Mukhtār Pasha.

The Answer .- Praise be to God alone, and peace and blessing be to the last of the Prophets . . . It is laid down by the Ulema that the subject of waqf must be property having legal value (māl mutaqawwim), provided it is land or moveable property with regard to which there is Ta'amul. If, therefore, the said securities be property having legal value and there has been a practice of making waqt of them in the country of the dedicator, their waqf would be valid according to the opinion of Imam Muhammad, like the wanf of dirhams and dinars the waqf of which is now recognized. So also is the waqf of pickaxes and shovels when their waqf independently has been recognized according to the opinion of the above-mentioned Imam. This opinion has been adopted by the majority of jurists of various countries as stated in the Hidayah, and this is the correct opinion as stated in the Is^{α} , and it is the dictum of most doctors as stated in the Zahīriyyah. Thus it is laid down in the Radd-al-Muhtar and it is expressly laid down in the commentary on the Durr that the fatwa is in accordance this. As to the waqf of moveables accessories to land, it is valid without any difference of opinion between Abū Yusuf and Muhammad. The following occurs in the Radd-al-Muhtār:---

"According to this, what is obvious is to take into consideration the practice in some place where, or at some time when, the practice came to be recognized and not otherwise. Thus the waqf of dirhams is practised in Turkish countries and not in our country, and the waqf of axe and spade was practised in the age of the ancients, but is not heard of in our time. Therefore it would appear that it is not valid now, and that if it should be found rarely it should not be taken into consideration, since it has been already stated that Ta'āmul means the more frequent in use. The matter therefore requires critical consideration."

Therefore the question turns as to whether there is recognized practice or not. Now as to shares in trading companies. their waqf is of the nature of waqf of musha; so if they are shares in landed property, their waqf is valid according to Abū Yusuf and Muhammad if they are not capable of being divided. But if they are capable of division, then the validity of their waqf is in accordance with the opinion of Abū Yūsuf and not with that of Muhammad. Both these opinions have been pronounced correct by the application of the word fatws. If they are shares in moveables their waqf is valid provided that they are not capable of division and there has been recognized practice as to making waqf of them. For in the gloss of Ibn Abidin on the Bahr we find the following: "And Muhammad says-It is valid to make waqf of moveables when recognized in practice, etc." Now that you know that the waqf of moveables is valid according to the opinion of Muhammad, you should have regard also to the conditions laid down by him concerning the wauf of these things, e.g. that they should be divided, not musha, when they are capable of division, and that they should be delivered to a Mutawalli, even though they do not satisfy the condition of perpetuity (ta'bīd)." Finis. Finally you should know that the language of jurists here show some leaning towards taking special recognized practice ('urf khāss) into consideration. This is one of the views of the school, and it is a proper view, since the language of the dedicators is based on their special practice ('urf) ... Written on the 9th of Muharram, 1326 A.H. Fatwa No. 167.

OFFICIAL SEAL OF THE Fatua DEPARTMENT.

SEAL OF THE GRAND MUSTI.

LXXXI. Answer by Muhammad Bakhīt al-Muţī'ī, the Ḥanafī jurist of the University Mosque of al-Azhar, Muţtī of Alexandria:—

Praise be to God . . . I have perused the above-mentioned question. As these securities, company shares, pickaxes and shovels and similar things are all included under the term moveables, and as the rule applicable to the waqf of moveables is to the following effect:-"The waqf of moveables, if accessories to land, is valid without any difference of opinion between Abū Yūsuf and Muhammad: If the waqf of such moveables be made independently and not as accessories to land, Abū Yūsuf rejects their waqf, but Muḥammad's opinion is in favour of the validity of waqf of such moveables as regards which there is Ta'amul. This opinion has been adopted by the majority of jurists of various countries as stated in the Hidayah, and this is the correct opinion as stated in the $Is'\bar{a}f$, and it is the dictum of most doctors as stated in the Zahiriyyah. Moreover, it has been stated in the Mujtabá on the authority of the Siyar, that according to Muhammad it is valid to make waqf of moveables unrestrictedly and according to Abū Yūsuf only when there is Ta'amul "-therefore when a practice has arisen as to making waqf of these securities and shares, their waqf is valid, specially as they are of the nature of coins, dirhams and dinars. Now we find in the Manh: As a practice has arisen in our days in Turkey and other countries of making waqf of

dirhams and dinārs, they come under the dictum of Muhammad in accordance with which is the fatwa as regards moveables in which there is Ta'amul. So also it is valid to make waqf of pickaxes and shovels when there is a practice of doing so. Similarly [is valid the waqf of] all moveables including articles sold by measure and weight, things having price (qimi) and similars (mithli), cauldrons, bier and its pall, copies of the Qur'an and books. Since the Ta'amul of the Muslims as regards these things is based on the rule of recognized practice ('urf) whereby analogy is disregarded on account of the saying of the Prophet, 'Whatever is good in the sight of the Muslims is good in the sight of God,' as reported by Ahmad That is why it is laid down in the Mabsūt, - 'What is established by usage ('urf) is like what is established by express text.' And God knows best.

(Signed) Muhammad Bakhīt al Mutī'ī.

LXXXII. FATWÁ OF SHAYKH 'ABD-ALLAH AL-MĀZANDARĀNI THE CELEBRATED MUJTAHID OF KARBALA.

Question.—What does the great Hujjat-al-Islam and the refuge of mankind, may his shadow extend, say in connection with this religious point in law that, if several persons form into a joint stock company and purchase a property at a fixed price and divide it into a number of shares of equal value—for instance some purchase 10 shares and some 20 shares, and so on, each having a different number of shares—so that the annual profit may be divided proportionately amongst the share-holders according to the number of shares they hold -to explain this point more clearly, hundred men purchased a Bazar the total value of which is divided into 1,000 shares, of 100 rupees each, so that each share-holder may receive. the annual profit in proportion to the number of shares he holds; for instance Zayd has got 10 tickets, i.e., 10 shares whether Zayd can make a waqf of his own shares, so that the principal may remain as it is and the income may be spent for a specific purpose. Whether such a waqf, according to the Shi'ah Law, is valid or not? It is hoped that your Holiness may write your opinion on this point based upon the trustworthy writings of the learned predecessors and endorse it with your seal.

Answer .- In the name of God the Most High. Shī'ahs in general and the majority of the Sunnis belonging to the Four Schools and others (with the exception of a few ordinary men whose views on the subject are out of the way) hold that musha waqf is valid. Numerous authentic traditions from the Imams, peace be on them, have been handed down, respecting musha charity (sadaqah) which clearly lay down that by Sadaqa is meant either waqf

itself or that waqf is the most obvious kind of it. Therefore the validity of such a waqf on account of its being owned by a joint stock company cannot be questioned. And as possession is the condition for validity of a waqf, therefore the donor must hand over (the property) either to him for whose benefit the waqf is made, or to the Mutawalli; [he must give possession to the Mutawalli, etc.] exactly in the same way as he would have done to a purchaser to whom he had sold his share. In the case of waqf he must give possession to the Mutawalli. If he constitutes himself the Mutawalli, he must act according to the deed of waqf, and must consider his possession as that of a Mutawalli and not that of an owner. If he has made a waqf of mushā' property and given possession the waqf is valid and binding. If he has not given possession, he may revoke the waqf during his lifetime. If the dedicator dies before giving possession, the waqf is null and void. God is the All-knowing.

11th Sha'bān, 1325 A.H. Seal of the Mujtahid.

"I certify the seal marked A on the margin of this paper to be that of Shaikh Abdullah Mazindarani, the celebrated Mujtahid of Najaf, who made the same in my presence this 28th day of September 1907."

(Sd.) M. H. M. . . .

British Vice-Consul.

Karbala, 28th September, 1907.

APPENDIX I.

BIBLIOGRAPHY SHOWING THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE WAQF OF MOVEABLES.

THE KORAN.

I. The Koran. - The first and foremost fountain-head of Muslim Law, religious and secular, is silent on the point. The Koran contains no allusion to the institution of Waqf.

THE HADITH.

II. 'Umdat-al-Qārī.—The celebrated commentary on the Sahih of al-Bukhārī by the great doctor, al-'Aynī (see infra XVI and XXII). Al-Bukhārī is the highest recorder of the traditions. His collection of the sayings of the Prophet entitled the Sahih is the most authentic and celebrated. It is second only to the Koran. (Encyc. Brit., 9th ed., vol. xvi, p. 594. Introd. to Morley's Digest of Indian Cases, celiii. Brocklemann, Gesch. der. Arab. Litt., ed. 1901, p. 130).

III. Fath-at-Bari.—Another celebrated commentary on the Sahih of al-Bukhārī by Zayn al-din 'Abd al-Rahmān b. Ahmad, the Hanbali, died 795 A. H .- (Haji Khalfa, vol. vii.

p. 997, ed. Leipzig).

Shi'ah Law.

IV. Sharā'i' al-Islām.—"It is the chief authority for Shi'ah Law in India."—Morley, cclxxvii.

V. Masālik-al-Afhām.—" A valuable and voluminous com-

mentary on the Sharā'i' al-Islām." (Ibid.).

Maliki Law.

The Mukhtasar of Sīdī Khalīl.—This celebrated compendium of Mālikī Law is the Hidāyah of the Mālikī School. "The Mukhtasar of Khalil Ibn Ishaq is a work professedly treating of the law according to the Maliki doctrines"-

Morley, p. colxxiv to colxxv.

VII. The Mudawwanah.—One of the great original sources of Māliki Law. "He (Suḥnūn) held the post of Kadi at Cairawan, and on points of doctrine his opinions are of standard authority in the Maghrib. He is the author of the Mudawwanah (Digest) containing the doctrines of the Imam Malik; this work is the main authority relied on by the people of Cairawan. Died A.H. 240 (A.D. 845).—Ibn Khallikan

[N.S.] Biographical Dictionary, vol. ii, p. 131 (Baron De Sland's

Translation).

VIII. Dardir.—A well-known commentary on the Mukhtasar of Sidi Khalil.

IX Dasugi. Another well-known commentary on the Mukhtasar of Sidi Khalil.

SHĀFI'I LAW.

X. The Ghayat-al-Bayan and the Sharh Ghayat-al-Bayan. See Supplement to the Catalogue of the Arabic MSS in the British Museum by Dr. Rieu, p. 203, No. 318, Chayat al-Bayan of al-Ramli. " a commentary by Jamal-uddin upon a metrical treatise on Shafi'i'Law entitled al-Zabad by Ahmad b. Raslan." See Brockelmann, p. 224.

HANAFI LAW.

EARLY AUTHORITIES.

XI. Quduri, also spelt "Kudury."—The earliest extant treatise on Hanafi Law, the celebrated Hidayah being only one of its commentaries. See Morley, p. cclxv.

"Al-Kuduri died in A.H. 428 (A.D. 1036)."

p. cclxv.

Qāḍī Khān (also spelt as Cazi Khaun, Kazi Khan, &c.), author of Fatawa Qa is Khan otherwise called Fatawa Khaniyyah or simply al-Khaniyyah, d. 592 A.H. (1195 A.D.). Esteemed of equal authority with the Hidayah. (Morley, colxxxv; Harington's 'Analysis of the Bengal Regulations,' vol. i, p. 236). Higher than the Hidayah according to-

(1) D'Ohsson's Tableau Général de l'Empire Ottoman.

(2) Radd-al-Muhtar, vol. i, p. 79, Ed. Constantinople. Ibid., vol. iv, p. 385.

Frequently quoted and referred to by the author of the Hidayah himself. As Qadi Khan was himself a Judge (Qadi) as well as a jurist, his decisions are of great value (Ameer Ali, vol. i, p. xlviii).

THE HIDAYAH GROUP. В.

XIII. The Hidayah, the well-known authority on Hanafi Law by Burhan al-din 'Alt, d. 593 A.H. (1196 A.D.). Morley, colavii. Translated into English by Hamilton from a loose Persian version of the original Arabic.

XIV. The Kifāyah.—It is a commentary on the Hidāyah by Imam al-din Amir, etc. Morley, colxix. The date of the

work is 747 A.H. (1346 A.D.).

XV. The 'Inayah, commentary on the Hidayah by Sheikh

Akmal al-din Muhammad, d. 786 A.H. (1384 A.D.). XVI. The Binayah (otherwise known as al-'Aynı's commentary on the Hidayah) is a commentary on the Hidayah by Badr al-din b. Ahmad al-'Aynı, d. 855 A.H. (1451 A.D.). Morley, colux, coluxivi.

XVII. Fath-al-Qadir, by Kamāl al-din Muhammad al Siwāsi, commonly called Ibn Hammām (d. 861 A.H. = 1456 A.D.), is the most comprehensive of all the comments on the Hidayah. Morley, celxix. Harington, p. 237.

XVIII. Sharh-al-Wiqāyah is a commentary on the Wiqāyah (an introduction to the study of the Hidayah) by Ubayd-Allah b. Mas'ūd (d. 750 A.H. = 1349 A.D.). Morley, oclxx;

Harington, p. 240.

XIX. Dhakhīrat-al-'Uqbá, commonly known as the gloss of Chalpi, is the most celebrated super-commentary on the Wiqayah by Yūsuf b. Junayd, commonly called Chalpi.

Harington, p. 239.

XX. Jāmi'-al-Rumūz, otherwise known as al-Quhistānī. It is a most copious and esteemed commentary on the Nikāyah, which is an abridgement of the Wiqāyah. The date of the work is 941 A.H. (=1534 A.D.)

C. THE KANZ GROUP.

XXI. The Kanz-al-Daqā'iq, by Ḥāfiz al-dīn al-Nasafī (710 A.H.), a book of great reputation, principally derived

from the Wafi. Morley, cclxx.

XXII. The Ramz-al-Haga'iq, better known as al-'Ayni's commentary on the Kanz-al-Daga'ig by Badr al-din b. Ahmad al-'Aynı, d. 855 A.H. = 1451 A.D. Morley, column There is also a gloss by al-'Ayni on the Kanz-al-Daqa'iq.

XXIII. Mustakhlias-al-Haqā'iq is a commentary on the Kanz-al-Daqā'iq by Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad 906 A.H. = 1500 A. D. Haji Khalfa, vol. vii, p. 988, ed. Leipzig.

XXIV. The Kanz-al-Bayan, a commentary on the Kanz-

al-Dagā'iq by the great doctor, Shaykh Mustafá al-Tā'i.

XXV. Mulla Miskin is a commentary on the Kanz-al-

Dagā'ig by Mulla Miskin.

This work was consulted by Ibn Nujaym, the author of the Ashbāh wa'l Nazā'ir, who is also the author of the Bahr-al-Rā'iq, in writing that work. See Ashbah, p. 3, ed. Cal.

XXVI. Fath-al-Mu'in is a commentary on the Kanz-al-

Daqā'iq by the great doctor Mu'in al-din al-Harani.

XXVII. $Bahr-al-R\bar{a}'iq$, by Ibn al-Nujaym (d. 970 A.H. = 1562 A.D.), is the most famous commentary on the Kanz-al-Daqā'iq. It may indeed almost be said to have superseded it in India. Morley, cclxx.

Received as an authority in every city of Islam. Equalled only, by the Fath-al-Qadir, the famous commentary on the

Hidayah. Harington, p. 238.

XXVIII. The $Is'\bar{a}f$.—The date of the work is 930 A.H. = 1499 A.D. The author Burhan al-din Ibrahim died in 922 A.H. = 1516 A.D. Haji Khalfa, vol. i, p. 284. The author was an eminent Hanafi jurist who flourished in Tripoli. This

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work exclusively deals with the law of Waqf and is based on that of al-Khassāf and al-Hilāl on the same subject. It is frequently quoted as an authority on the law of Waqf in the Fatāwá 'Alamgīrī, the Durr-al-Mukhtār, the Radd-al-Muhtār and other authoritative works on Muslim Law.

E.

XXIX. The Fatāwá 'Ālamgīrī, a collection of cases undertaken by order of the Moghal Emperor Aurangzīb, 1656 A.D. It is not an original work but a mere compilation by a number of Mawlawis under the supervision of Aurangzīb.

F. OTTOMAN GROUP.

XXXI. The Multaqá 'l-Abhur', by Ibrāhīm b. al-Halabī (d. 956 A.H. = 1549 A.D.), one of the most important works on Hanafi Law.

XXXI. Majma' al-Anhur, by 'Abd al-Rahmān, commonly known as Sheikh Zādé, is a commentary on the Multath. It was completed in 1077 A.H. = 1670 A.D. Morley, ccixxiii, Haji Khalfa, vol. vi, p. 105.

XXXII. The Durr al-Muntaqá, by Alā'al-din al-Hiskafi,

d. 1071 A.H. = 1677 A.D.

XXXIII. The Tanwir al-Absār, by Shams al-dīn al-Ghazzī. The date of the work is 995 A.H. = 1586 A.D., one of the most useful books according to Hanafi doctrine. Morley, cclxxxviii.

XXXIV. The Durr al-Mukhtār, written in A.H. 1071 = A.D. 1660, is one of the most noted commentaries on the Tanwīr al-Absar and is well known in India. "As high an authority as Qādī Khān." I. L. R. 8 All., 149, F. B. (1886). Morley, cclxxxviii.

XXXV. The Radd-al-Muhtar is a commentary on the Durr-al-Muhtar by Ibn 'Abidin of Syria, b. 1198, d. 1252

A.H. = 1835 A.D.

XXXVI. Tahtāwī, one of the most celebrated commen-

taries on the Durr-al-Mukhtār.

XXXVII. Fatāwá Tanqīḥ al-Ḥāmidiyyah, a collection of Fatwas by Ibn 'Ābidīn, the author of the Radd-al-Muḥtār.

G. MISCELLANEOUS GROUP.

XXXVIII. Fatāwá Qunyah. The Qunyat al-Munyah is a collection of decisions of considerable authority by al-Zāhidi, d. 658 A.H. = 1259 A.D. Morley, cclxxxvi.

XXXIX. Fatāwá Bazzāziyyah. Morley, coxcii.

XL. Fatāwá Mahdiyyah (1090 A.H). By the Shaykh al-Islām and Grand Mufti of Egypt, Shaykh Muhammad al-'Abbāsi (1301 A.H.), the celebrated Ḥanafi jurist of al-Azhar.

APPENDIX II.

TANQIH AL-HAMIDIYYAH (Vol. I, p. 117, ed. Cairo).

Question.—A man makes a waqf of buffaloes in a place where their waqf is not recognized in practice, and with respect to which there has not been any Ta'āmul. Will it, or will it not, be deemed [sufficient to establish] Ta'āmul, if such a

waqf is practised by one person or two persons?

Answer.—[After quoting the Fatāwá 'Attābiyyah, the Khulāṣah, &c., the author says:] (1) The necessary inference drawn from their (the jurists') expression "if the practice of making such waqfs prevailed," is that it (i.e. Ta'āmul) cannot be established by the practice of one person or of two persons, as that cannot be described as a prevalent practice. (2) According to Ibn Hammām, Ta'āmul means "the more frequent in use."

ARABIC TEXTS.

ردالمحتار الجزء الاول سقحة . ي

هذا مانقله العلامة بيري في أول شرحة على الإشداة من شرح الهدالة لابن الشحنة و نصه اذا صم الحديث و كان على خلاف البغيب عمل بالحديث و يكون ذلك مذهبه ولا يطوح مقلدة عن كونه حذفها بالعمل به فقد صم عنه انه قال اذا صم الحديث فهو مذهبي وقد حكى ذلك ابن عبد البر عن أبي حنيفة وغيرة من الائمة الا و نقله أيضا الامام الشعواني عن الائمة الاربعة *

قوله من أثار الرحمة - صفحة . ٧

فأن اختلاف أئمة الهدى توسعة للناس كما في اول القاتار خانية و هذا يشير الله الحديث المشهور على ألسنة الناس و هو اختلاف امتي رحبة - قال رسول الله صلى الله عليه وسلم صهما اوتيتم من كتاب الله فالعبلي به لا عذر لاحد في تركه فأن لم يكن في كتاب الله فسدة صني صاضية فأن لم تكن سنة مني فما قال اصحابيان اصحابي بمنزلة النجوم في السماء فايما أخذتم به أهديتم و اختلاف اصحابي لكم رحبة ه

و نقل السيرطي عن عمر بن عبدالعزيز انه كان يقول ماسرني لو ان اصحاب محمد صلى الله علية وسلم لم يختلفوا لانهم لو لم يختلفوا لم تكن رخصة *

الدر المختار الجزء اول صفحة . ٧

وعلم بأن الاختلاف من آثار الرحمة فيهما كان الاختلاف أكثر كانت الرحمة الوقر لما قالوا — رسم المفتي أن ما اتفق عليه أصحابنا في الروايات الطاهرة يفتي به قطعا و اختلف فيما اختلفوا فيه و الاصح كما في السراجية وفيوها انه يفتي بقول الامام على الاطلاق ثم بقول الثاني ثم بقول الثالث ثم بقول زفر والحسن بن زياد و صحح في الحاوي القدسي قوق المحدرك — مطلب اذا تعارض التصحيح وفي وقف البحر وفيرة متى كان في المسئلة قولان مصححان جاز القضاء و الافتاء بأحدهما وفي اول المضموات اما العلامات للافتاء فقوله وعليه القتوى وية يفتى و به نأخذ وعليه الاعتماد وعليه عمل الميم وطليه عمل الاحتمار والاحم الافتاء في الاحتمار والاحتمال والاحتمال والمحتمال والاحتمال والمتحمل والمتح

مما ذكر في حاشية البزدوى اله وقال شيخنا الرسلي في فتاوية و بعض الالفاظ اكد من بعض فلفظ الفتوى اكد من لفظ الصحيح و الاصبح و الاشبة وغيرها ولفظ و به يفتى آكد من الفتوى عليه و الاصبح آكد من الصحيح و الاحوط اكد من الحتياط انتهى قلت لكن في شرح المنية للحلبي [عند قوله ولايجوز مس مصحف الابغلافة] اذا تعارض اصامان معتبوان عبر احدهما بالصحيح والاخر بالاصبح فالاخذ بالصحيح اولى لابهما اتفقا على انه صحيح و الاخذ بالمنفق اوفق أوليحفظ المرايد في رسالة آداب المفتى اذا ذيلت رواية في كتاب معتبد بالاصبح أو الاولى او الارفق او نحوها فله ان يفتى او عليه الفتوى لم يفت مخالفه الا ذيلت بالصحيح او المأخوذ به او به يفتى او عليه الفتوى لم يفت مخالفه الا اذا كان في الهداية مثلا هو الصحيح وي الكافي لمخالفه هو الصحيح فيخير في الكافي لمخالفه هو الصحيح فيخير فيخار الاقوى عنده و الاليق و الاصلح اه - فليحفظ و حاصل ما ذكرة الشيخ فيختار الاقوى عنده و الاليق و الاصلح اه - فليحفظ و حاصل ما ذكرة الشيخ قاسم في تصحيحه انه لا فوق بين المفتي و القاضي الا ان المفتي معتبر عن الحكم و القاضي ملزم به *

قوله في الروايات الظاهرة . صفحة ١١١. vi

اعام أن مسائل أصحابا الحذفية على ثلاث طبقات أشرت البها سابقا ملخصة [ونظمتها] - الأولى مسائل الاصول و تسمى ظاهر الروابة أيضا وهي مسائل مروية عن أصحاب المذهب وهم أبو حنيفة و ابو يوسف و محمد و يلحق بهم زفر و الحسن بن زياد وغيرهما ممن أخذ عن الإمام لكن الغالب الشائع في ظاهر الرواية أن يكون قبل الثلاثة و كتب ظاهر الرواية كتب محمد الستة المبسوط و الزيادات و الجامع الصغير و السير الصغير و الجامع الكبير و السير الكبير و المام الرواية والمناه الكبير و السير الكبير و المام الرواية عنه المامة والرواية والمام الرواية والمام الرواية والمام الرواية والمام الرواية والمام الموادر وهي المروية عن أصحابنا المدكورين أو مشهورة عنه و الكتب المذكورة بل اما في كتب اخر لمحمد كالكيسانيات و الهارونيات و الجرجانيات و الرواية المام ترو عن أصحيد بروايات ظاهرة ثابتة صحيحة كالكتب الأولى] و اما في غير كتب محمد محمد عروايات ظاهرة ثابتة صحيحة كالكتب الأولى] و اما في غير كتب محمد كالمحرر للحسن بن زياد وغيرة فهنها كتب الإمالي المروية عن أبي يوسف و اما برواية مفردة كرواية ابن سماعة [و المعلى بن منصور] وغيرها في مسائل معينة - الثالثة الواقعات وهي مسائل استنبطها المجتهدون المتأخرون المال عنها ولم يجدوا فيها رواية وهم أصحاب أبي يوسف و محمد و أصحاب

أَصَّحَالَهُمُّا وَهُلَم جَوَا وَهُم كَثَيْرُونَ قَمِنَ أَصَحَابُهُمَا مَثَلَ عَصَامَ بَنَ يُوسَفُ وَ ابْنَ رستم [وَصَحَدِه بَنَ سِمَاعَةً وَ أَنِي سَلَيْمَانَ الجَرِجَانِي] و أَبِي حَفْصَ الْبَخَارِي *

وقد يتفق لهم أن يخالفوا أصحاب المذهب لدلائل و اسباب ظهرت لهم و أول كتاب جمع في فتواهم فيما بلغنا كتاب النوازل للفقيد أبي اللَّيث السمرقندي ثم جمع المشاييخ بعدة كتبا اخرى كمجموع النوازل و الواقعات للناطقي و الواقعات للصدر الشهيد ثم ذكو المتأخرون هذه المسائل مختلطة غير متميزة كما في فناوى قاضيطان والخلاصة وغيرهما وميز بعضهم كما في كتاب المحيط ارضى الدين السوخسي فانه ذكر أولا مسائل الاصول ثم النوادر ثم الفتوى و نعم ما فعل .] أ و اعلم أن من كقب مسائل الاصول كتاب الكافي للحاكم الشهيد وهو كتاب معتمد في فيقل المذهب شرحه جماعة من المشايخ منهم الإمام شمس الائمة السرخسي وهوالمشهور بمبسوط السرخسي قال العلامة الطوسوسي مبسوط السرخسي لا يعمل بها يخالفه ولا يركن الا اليه ولا يفتى ولا يعول الا عليه وصن كتب الهذَّهب ايضا المنتقى له ايضا الا أن فيه بعض النوادر و اعلم أن نسيخ المبسوط المروي عن محمد متعددة و اطبرها مبسوط أبي سليمان الجوزجاني و شرح المبسوط جماعة من المتأخرين مثل شيخ الاسلام بكر المعروف بخواهر زادة و يسمى المبسوط الكبير وشمس الاثمة الحلواني وغيرهما و مبسوطاتهم شروح فى الحقيقة ذكروها مختلطة بمبسوط محمد كما فعل شواح الجامع الصغير مثل فخر الاسلام و قاضيخان و غيرهم فيقال ذكرة قاضيخان في الجامع الصغير و المراد شرحة وكذا في غيرة [و شوح الشيخ اسمهيل النابلسي على شرح الدرر]- فاحفظ ذلك فاله مهم كحفظ طبقات مشآيعٌ المذهب و سنذكوها قويبا .

صفحة ٧٢

و في باب العيدين من البحر و النهر أن الجامع الصغير صنفه محمد بعد الاصل فما فيه هو المعول عليه ثم قال في النهر سمي الاصل أصلا لانه صنف أولا ثم الجامع الصغير ثم الكبير ثم الزيادات كذا في غاية البيان •

قوله بقول الامام - صفحة ٧٧

قال عبد الله بن مبارک لانه رأى الصحابة و زاهم القابعين في الفترى فقوله اسد و اقوى مالم يكن اختلاف عصر و زمان .

قوله وصحم في الحاوى القدسي قوة المدرك - صفحة س

اقول يدل عليه قول السرابية و الاول أصع اذا لم يكن المفقي معقهدا فهو مرابع في أن المعقهديعاي من كان أهلا للنظر في الدليل يتبع من الاقوال ما كان أقوى دليلا و الا اتبع الترتيب السابق و من هذا تراهم قديرجحون قول بعض أصحابه على قوله كما رجحوا قول زفر وحدة في سبع عشرة مسئلة فنتبع ما وجحوة لانهم أهل النظر في الدليل ولم يذكر ما اذا اختلفت الروايات عن الاهام او لم يوجد عنه و لا عن اصحابه رواية أملا ففي الال يؤخذ باقواها حجة كما في الحاوى ثم قال و اذا لم يوجد في الحادثة عن واحد منهم جواب ظاهر وتكلم في المشايخ المتأخرون قولا واحدا يوخذ به فان اختلفوا يوخذ بقول الاكثرين و وان لم يوجد منهم جواب البتة نصا ينظر المفتي فيها نظر تأمل و تدبر و اجتهاد ليجد فيها ما يقرب الى الخروج عن العهدة *

قد جعل العلماء الفنوى على قول الامام الاعظم فى العبادات مطلقا وقد صرحوا بأن الفتوى على قول محمد في جميع مسائل ذوى الارحام و في قضاء الاشباة و النظائر الفتوى على قول ابي يوسف فيما يتعلق بالقضاء كما فى القنية و البزازية اه اى لحصول زيادة العلم له به بالتجربة و لذا رجع ابوحنيفة عن القول بان الصدقة افضل من حج التطوع لما حج وعوف مشقته وفي شرح البيري ان الفتوى على قول ابي يوسف ايضا فى الشهادات و على قول زفر أهل في سبع عشرة مسئلة حررتها في رسالة و ينبغي ان يكون هذا عدم ذكر اهل الميتون للتصحيح و ألا فالحكم بما فى المتون كما لا يخفى لانها صارت متواترة هو أذا كان في مسئلة قياس و استحسان فالعمل على الاستحسان الا في

مسائل معدودة مشهورة *

open and

اذا ذكر في المسئلة ثلاثة أقوال فالراجع هو الأول أو الأخير لا الوسط اه وفي شوح المنية ولا ينبغي أن يعدل عن الدراية اذا وافقتها رواية اه ذكرة في واجبات الصلوة في معرض ترجيع رواية وجوب الرفع من الركوم والسجود للقدلة الواردة مع أنها خلاف الرواية المشهورة عن الأمام *

قوله و نحوها - صفحه ٥٥

كقولهم و يد جرى الموف وهو المتمارف [و يد اخذ علماءنا] .

قوله وقال شيخنا

المَوْان به حَيث أطلق في هذا الكتاب العلامة الشيخ خير الدين الوملي .

قوله و الاليق . صفحة ٧٩ أى لزمانه و الاصلم الذي يواء مناسبا في تلك الواقعة *

مفحة VV. VV

[فقد ذكر في حيض البحر في بحث الوان الدماء أقوالا ضعيفة] قال وفى المعواج عن فحر الائمة لو افتى صفت بشيء من هذه الاقوال في مواضع الضرورة طلبا للتيسيركان حسنا *

صفحة و٧٠ ٧٠

لابد للمفتى أن يعلم حال من يفتى بقوله ولا يكفيه معرفته باسمه ونسبه بل لابد من معرفته في الرواية و درجته في الدراية و طبقته من طبقات الفقهاء ليكون على بصيرة في القمييز بين القائلين المقطالفين و قدرة كافية في القرجيم بين القولين المتعارضين - الاولى - طبقة المجتهدين في الشرع كالائمة الاربعة رضي الله عنهم و من سلك مسلكهم في تأويس قواعد الاصل و به يمقازون عن فيرهم - الثانية - طبقة المجتهدين في المذهب كا بي يوسف و محمد وسائر أصحاب ابي حنيفة الفادرين على استخراج الاحكام من الادلة على مقتضى القواعد التى قررها استادهم ابو حليفة في الاحكام و ان خالفرة في بعض احكام الفروع اكن يقلدونه في قواعد الاصول و به يمقازون عن المعارضيان في المذهب كالشافعي وعبود المخالفين لد في الاحكام عير مقلدين لد في الاصول . الثالثة . طبقة المجتهدين في المسائل التي لاص فيها عن صاحب المذهب كالخصاف و ابي جمفر الطحاوى وابى الحسن الكرخي وشمس الائمة الحلواني وشمس الائمة السرخسي و فخر الاسلام البزدوي و فخر الدين قاضيخان و امثالهم فانهم لا يقدرون على شي من المخالفة لا في الاصول ولا في الفروء لكنهم يستنبطون الإحكام في المسائل التي لا نص فيها على حسب الاصول و القواعد - الرابعة -اصحاب القطريم من المقلدين كالرازي وأضرابه فانهم لا يقدرون على الأجلهاد أسلا لكنهم لاحاطتهم بالاصول و ضبطهم للمأخذ يقدرون على تفعيل قول مجمل ذي وجهين و حكم مبهم محليل لامرين منقول عن ماحب البدهب أو أحد

من اصحابه برأيهم و نظرهم في الاصول و المقايسة على امثاله و نظائرة من الفروع وما في الهداية من قوله كذا في تخويج الكرخي و تخريج الرازي من هذا القبيل - الخامسة - طبقة اصحاب الترجيح من المقلدين كابي الحسن القدوري و صاحب الهداية و امثالهما وهأنهم تفضيل بعض كقولهم هذا اولى وعف أصع رواية وهذا ارفق للناس - والسادسة - طبقة المقلدين القادرين على تحتييز بين الاقوى و القوي و الضعيف و ظاهر المذهب و الرواية النادرة كاصحاب المتون المعتبرة من المتاخرين مثل صاحب الكنز والحب المختار و صاحب الوقاية و صاحب المحتودة و الروايات الضعيفة و السابعة - طبقة المقلدين الذين لا ينقلوا الاقوال المودودة و الروايات الضعيفة و السابعة - طبقة المقلدين الذين لا يقدرون على ما ذكر *

الدر المختار الجزء الاول صفحة VI. و VI.

أن المجتهد المطلق قد فقد و أما المقيد نعلى سبع مراتب مشهورة و أما المقيد نعلى سبع مراتب مشهورة و أما الحقيق فعالى الله المقيد على المحود و ما صححود كما لو افتوا في حياتهم فان قلت قد يحكون أقوالا بلا ترجيح و قد يختلفون في الصحيح قلت يعمل بمثل ما عملوا من اعتبار تغير العرف و أحوال الناس و ما هو الارفق و ما ظهر عليه النعامل و ما قوى وجهه *

VII.

(قوله بلاتر حدي) - 1 امر صراح بر صفي والصريح ظاهر ما ذكرة سايقا و الضعني ما نبهذاك عليه عند قوله و في وقف البحر فانه اذا كان احد القولين ظاهر الرواية و الاخر غيرها فقد صرحوا اجمالا] بانه لا يعدل عنه بلا ترجيح صويح لمقابله و كذا لو كان احد القولين في المتون او الشروح او كان قول الامام او كان هو الاستحسان في عير ما استثني او كان انفع للوقف *

VIII.

(مذهبه) حكم الحنفي بمذهب ابي يوسف او محمد حكم بمذهبه *
[قوله خلاف مذهبه] اى اصل المدهب كالحدفي اذا حكم على مذهب الشافعي او نحولا او بالعكس و اما إذا حكم الحذفي بمذهب ابي يوسف او محمد

⁽ ۱) طبقة اصحاب الترجيع عد منهم الكفرى على الرازي تلميذ حسن بن وياد و ابن كمال باشا الرومي وابا السعود العمادي المفسر الرومي و عد منهم صاحب البعر الرائق ابن الهمام صاحب فتم القدير وقيل انه بلغ رتبة الاجتهاد * هكذا في عمدة الرماية *

[N.S.]

أو لُحُوهُما من اصحاب الامام فليس حكما بخلاف رأية درر اي لان اصحاب الام ما قالوا بقول الا قد قال به الامام *

مقدمة عمدة الرعاية حاشية شرح الوقاية صفحة عرا

و الحال ان اماعذا الاعظم قال لا يحل لاحد ان ياخذ بقولنا مالم يعرف ماخذة من الكتاب و السنة او اجماع الامة او القياس الجلي في المسالة ،

و قال الشافعي اذا صبح الحديث على خلاف قولي فاضربوا قولي على الحائط و اعداوا بالحديث الضابط - صفحة ١٥ ٠

وفي كتاب القضاء من الاشباء المفتي انها يفتي بها يقع عنده من المصلحة كما في صهو البزازية انتهى *

وفى الاشبالا ايضا يتمين الافقاء في الرقف بالافع له كما في شوب الم و الحاوي القدسي *

صفحة وا

المواد بالامام و بالامام الاعظم في كتب استعابنا هو صا ابو حنيفة وهو المواد بقولهم صاحب المذهب و النواد بالصاحبين ابو يوسف و محمد و بالشبطين ابو حليفة و ابو يوسف و بالطرفين محمد و ابو حليفة و بالإصام الثاني ابو يوسف و بالاصام الرباني صحمد و بقولهم عند اثمتنا الثلثة ابو حنيفة و صحمد و ابريوسف و بالائمة الاربعة ابر حديفة و مالك و الشافعي واهدد اصحاب المذاهب المشهورة - فائدة - شبس الأئمة عند الاطلاق في كتب اصحابذا يراد به شبس الأثبة السرخسي .

صفحة ١٧

ضمير عدَّدة في قول الفقهاء هذا الحكم عندة او هذا مذهبه اذا لم يكن مرجعة مذكورا سابقا يرجع الى الامام ابي حايقة و ان لم يسبق له ذكر لكونه مذكورا حكما وكذا ضمير عندهما يرجع الى ابي يرسف و محمد اذا لم يسبق مرجعة وقد يراد به ابويوسف و ابو حنيفة او صحمد و ابو حنيفة اذا سبق لثالثهما ذكر في مخالف ذلك الحكم [مثلا اذا قالوا عند محمد كذا و عندهما كذا يواد به ابو يوسف و ابو حنيفة يعنى الشيخين واذا قالوا عند ابييوسف كذا و عندهما كذا يرادية ابر حنيفة و محمد يعنى الطرفين]- فائدة - الفرق بين عندة و عنه إِن اللَّولَ وإِنْ على المذهب و الثَّاني على الرواية ماذا قالوا هذا مند ابي حنيفة. ول ذلك غلَّى انه صفعيه و إذا قالوا عنه. كذا دل ذلك على إنه رواية عنه *

كثيرا ما يدكرون حكما مصدرا بلفظ قيل و يكتب الشراح و المحشون تحته الله الشارة الى ضعفه و الحق الله الله القائم التزم ال يذكر الحكم المرجوح بهذة الصيغة و يشيربها إلى ضعفه قضى به جزما [كما علم من عادة مؤلف ملتقي الابحر فاله صرح في ديباجته عند ذكر القزاماته فيه ان كل ماصدرته بلفظ قيل و قالوا و ان كان مقرونا بالاصح و نحرة فانه مرجوح بالنسبة الى ماليس كذلك التهى -] و الا فلا يجزم بذلك *

الفتاري الخيرية صفحة ع١١٠ ٪

اجاب نعم يَجُوزُ فقد صوح علماؤنا المشاهير بجوازة ولو بالدراهم و الدنانير-و أوا اذا تعينت المصلحة فيه جاز مخالفة الشرط بما يذا فيد ... وقد اتفق متاكم علمائنا على الافتاء بما هو انفع للوقف في ما اختلفوا فيه *

كتاب المنهان في احكام الإوقائي - باب في الفاظ الوقف و أهله XI. في الفاظ الوقف و أهله XI.

و محلة - المال المتقوم بشرط كونة عقارا او منقولا او متعارفا وقفة *
كما لو وقف ضيعة و ذكر ما فيها من العبيد و الدواليب و الات الحراثة
فانها تصير وقفها *

وفى فقاوى الناطفي عن صحمد بن عبد الله الإنصاري من اصحاب زفر رحمه الله انه يجوز وقف الدراهم و الطعام و المكيل و الموزون فقيل له و كيف يصنع بالدراهم قال يدفعها مضاربة و يتصدق بالفضل وكذا يباع المكيل و الموزون بالدراهم و الدنانير و يدفع مضاربة و يتصدق بالفضل *

نصل في وقف المنقول اصالة

و الصحيح ما روي عن محدد رحدة الله من انه يجوز وقف ما جري فيد القعارف كالمصاحف و الكتب و الفاس و القدوم و المنشار و القدر و الجنازة لوجود التعارف في وقف عدة الإشياء وبه يترى القياس كما في الاستصناع [بخلاف صالا تعارف فيه كالثياب و الامتعة] لأن من شوطة التأبيد كما بينا ولكن تركناه فيها ذكرنا للتعارف و في السلاح و الكراع للجهاد بالنص ه

و أو وقف بقرة على رباط بان يعطي ما ينص ج من لبنها و شهرازها و سبنها وبعَّاءُ السبيلُ أن كان في موضع تعارفوا ذلك يصم كمَّا في عَلَم السقايَّة و إلا ثلا [و لو وقف بورا على اهل قرية ليذرى على بقرهم لا يصع لانه ليس نيد

وقد تقدم أن محدد بن عبد الله الإنصاري من اصحاب زفر رحمه الله تعالى قال بجواز وقف الدراهم و الطعام .

فصل في وقف البشاع و قسمته و المهايئة فيه

اتفق أبو يوسف معمد رحمهما الله على جواز وقف مشاع لا يمكن قسمتة كالحمام والبدر الرحى واختلفا في الممكن فأجازه أبويوسف وبد أخذ مشايخ بلخ و أبطله مع رح .

و لو قضى بجواز الوقف شاع ارتفع الخلاف .

الجزء الثالث من فقاوى تعصوان صفحة و.م المطيوع

سنة ۱۲۸۲ هجرية XII.

... قال الشيخ الامام الاجل همس الائمة السرخسي رحمه الله تعالى اي وقف المنقول مقصودا خلاف بين ابي يوسف و محمد رحمهما الله تعالى ذكرة في السير الكبير قال و الصحيم من الجواب أن ما فيد عرف ظاهر بين الناس لوقفه كالجنازة وثيابها وما يحتاج اليه من القدور و الاواني لغسل الميت والمصاحف و الكراع و السلام والفرس للجهاد يجوز وقفه *

r - و اختلف المشائخ رحمهم الله تعالى في وقف الكتب جوزة الفقيد ابو الليث رحمة الله تعالى و عليه الفنوي . و نصير رحمه الله وقف كتبه .

س ... رجل وقف بقرة على رباط على إن ما يخرج من لبنها و سبنها و شهرودها يعطي الابناء السبيل أن كان ذلك في موضع تعارفوا ذلك جاز كما يجوز ماء السقاية *

ع ــ رجل رقف دابة على رباط

ه ب رجل وقف دورا على أهل قرية لانزاء بقرهم لا يصع لاته ليس بقربة مقصودة وليس فيد عرف ظاهر .

٧ ـــ رجل وضع حدا ... *

٧ ... رجل وقف بناءً بدون ارض قال هلال رحمه الله تعالى لا يجوز ذلك *

۸ — وعن زفورهم الله تعالى رجل وقف الدراهم او الطعام او ما يكال او يوزن قال يجوز قيل له وكيف يكون قال و يدفع الدراهم مضاربة نم يتصدق بفضلها فى الوجه الذي وقف عليه وما يكال و يوزن يباع فيدفع ثمنه بضاعة او مضاربة كالدراهم - قالوا على هذا القيامى لو قال هذا الكر من الحنطة وقف على شرط ان يقرض من الفقراء الذين لا بذر لهم فيزرعوها لانفسهم ثم يوخذ منهم بعد الادراك قدر القرض ثم يقرض لغيرهم من الفقراء على هذا ابدا جاز على هذا الوجه ه

- و _ مريض اوصى ان يدفع الى فلان الف درهم ... *
- . الله عن ابي يوسف رحمه الله تعالى [النوادر] لا يجوز الوقف في العيوان "
- 11 رجل وقف بستانا بما فيد من البقر و الغذم و الرقيق فانه يجوز *

 11 رجل وقف موضعا في المنحدة و اخرجه من يدلا فاستولي عليد عاصب وحال بين الوقف و بينه قال الشيخ الامام ابوبكر محمد بن العضل رحمه الله تعالى ياخذ من الغاصب قيمتها و يشتري بها موضعا آخر فيقفه على شرائط الاول وقيل له اليس بيع الوقف لا يجوز فقال اذا كان الغاصب جاحدا و ليس للوقف بنية يصير مستهلكا] و الشيع المسبل اذا صار مستهلكا يجب به الاستبدال كالفرس المسبل اذا قتل و العبد الموصي بخدمة الكمبة اذا قتل *
- سا مقولي الوقف اذا صرف دراهم الوقف في حاجة نفسة ... *
 عالم للقيم ان يبيع الدواب التي كبر سنها و خرجت من ان تكون صالحة
 لها ربطت *
 - * ... squa del __ ; 8
 - 17 مقولي المسجد اذا اشقرى بغلة المسجد دارا ... *
- ان القيم يشترى بنلك الغلة دكر الواقف في وقفه] ان القيم يشترى بنلك الغلة بنازة [لا يجوز للقيم ان يشتري] ... *
 - ١٨ قرية فيها بدر [مطوية بالاجر] خربت القرية ... *

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19 - رجل وقف بناء ارض له ... *

د م ـــ و عن زفر رحمه الله تعالى اذا وقف الدراهم و الطعام وما يكال او يوزن يجوز *

٢١ ـــ اذا وقف جنازة او نعشا *

القبستاني صفحة عره الجزء الثالث XIII.

وصع عدد محمد رح وقف منقول فيه تعامل اى تعارف - كالمصحف * و نحوة - كالكتاب و الفاس و المنشار و الطشت و الجنازة و ثيابها و السلاح و البغل و الحمار و العبيد و الثيران و الآت الزراعة والشجر و الشوب مع الارض و الحمام مع البرج و النحل مع الكوارة *

فلو لم يتعامل[كالثياب والحيوان] لم يجز الإ بالتبعية كما في المغني وغيرة * وذكر في الزاهدي ان وقف المنقول جائز عند محمد رح وان لم يتعامل فيه - و بطل عند ابي يوسف رح ان لم يتعامل *

و عليه الفِتوى - اى يفتى بما صع عدد محمد رح لحاجة الناس اليه *

الدرالمنتقى في شرح الملتقى الجزع الأول صفحة ١٤٧٠ XIV. وكذا المنقول المتعارف وقفه عند محمد رح وكذا غير المتعارف ايضا عند محمد رح وبطل عند ابي يوسف رح ان لم يتعارف كما في شرح الومبانية عن الزاهدي عن السير الكبير - و تبعث الشربلالي و اقرة - و نقله القهستاني و اقرة . و نقله القهستاني و اقرة . و نقله القهستاني

لكن فى البر جندي وغيرة ان غير المتعارف لم يجز مند الثلاثة عندنا *

و عند الشافعي رح كل ما يمكن ان ينتفع به مع بقاء اصله و يجوز بيعه

يجوز وقفه بمنزلة العقار *

كالفاس والمو - و جميع آلات الزراعة و الشوب *

و القدوم و المنشار و الجنارة و ثيابها - وكدا وقف الاكسية على الفقراء * قلت وفي زمانها - وقد وقف بعض المتولين على الموذنين الفراء شناء ليلا فينبغي الجواز سيما على ما صر عن الزاهدي *

قدور الع - وقد زاد مشائضنا اشياء من البنقول على ما قاله محيدً وابو يوسف رحمها الله تعالى عملا بالتعامل كما في المنبع *

وقلت وعليد مع ما مر عن الزاهدي فلا يحتاج لرواية الانصاري عن وفو رح بوقف الدراهم والدنائيو كما ظن *

وقد ورد امر شريف للقضاة بالحكم به كما في معروضات المفتي ابي السعود . وكذا وقف المكيل و الموزون فيباع و يدفع ثمنة مضاربة او بضامة كالدراهم-وقاسوا عليه وقف كو بو على شرط أن يقرضه لمن لا بدر له ليورعه لنفسه *

قال ولو وقف بقَرة على ان ما خوج من لبنها و سمنها للفقراء ان اعتادوا ذلك رجوت انه بجوز - و الحق في المنع وقف البناء بدون الأرض وكذا وقف و و المحار بدونها ونه منقول فيد تعامل *

وبه - اى بقول محمد رح - يفتى - لوجود التعامل - و به يترك القياس كما في الاستصناع - قال عليد الصلوة و السلام ما رآة المسلمون حسنا فهو

مجمع الأنهر في شرح الملتقى الجزء الأول صفحة ٢١٤٧ XV. وصبح وقف العقار - وكذا - صبح وقف المنفول المتعارف وقفه عند محمد رح كما صع وقف المنقول مقصودا اذا تعامل الناس وقفد كالفاس و المر و القدوم و المنشار و الجنازة - و ثيابها *

و القدور و المراجل و المصاحف و الكقب *

وبه - اى وبقول معدد رح - يفتى - لوجود التعامل في هذه الاشياء ... و اختارة اكثر فقهاء الاصصار وهو الصحيح كما في الاسماى وهو قول عاملة المشاكيخ كما في الظهيرة - لأن القياس قد يقرى بالتعامل كما في الاستصفاع [بخلاق ما لا تعامل فيم كالثياب و الامتعة خلافا للشافعي رج] - وقد حكى المجتبى الخلاق ملى خلاف هذا المنقول فقيل قول محبد رح بجوازة مطلقا جرى التمارى بد أو لا و قول ابي يوسف رح أن جرى فيد تعامل *

ولما جرى التعامل في وقف الدنانير و الدراهم في زمان زفو رح بعد تجويز سيعة وقفيما في رواية دخلت تحت قول محمد رح البقاى بد في وقف كل مَلْقَولَ فَيْدَ تَعامِلُ كِمَا وَ يَحْتَنَى فَلَا يَحْتَاجٍ عَلَى هَذَا الَّى تَحْصَيْصَ القُولُ بَحُوازُ

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[N.S.]

وقفها البدهب وقر من رواية الانصاري - وقد افني صاحب البحر بجزاز وقفها ولم يسك خلافا كما في المني «

و النعمول به الآن الجواز - وكذا حكم وقف الأشجار - وفي الدفع المثماري في ديارًا وقف البناء بدون الأرض وكذا وقف الأشجار بدولها فيتعين الافتاء بعنصقه لانة منقول فيه التعامل انتهى «

و المران بالتعامل تعامل الصحابة و التابعين و المجتهدين من اثبة ألدين رضوان الله تعالى عليهم و علينا الجمعين و لا تعارى العوام كما قال بعض الفضلاء المعلى هذا ما قال صاحب المنح من ان المتعارى الى قوله لائه منقول قيم قعامل ليمن بمعتبد - لكن في المحيط وغيرة رجل وقف بقرة على رباط على ان ما يخرج من لبنها و سبنها يعطى وابناء السبيل قان كان في موضع يغلب ذاك في اوقافه رجوت ان يكون جائزا و

و من المشائخ من قال بالجواز مطلقاً - قالوا لانه جرى بذلك التعارف في ديار المسلمين انقهى - هذا يشعر بان المراد مطلق القعارف لا ما قاله البعض - تدبر *

ملا مسكين مع فقع المدين الجزء م صفحه ٧٠٥ . XVI.

(الف) و - صم وقفي منقول فيد تعامل - يعنى جرت العادة بوقفد مطلقا سواء كان مصحفا او فاسا او موا او منشارا او جنازة او ثيابها او قدورا او مراجل او كراعا او سلاحا عند محمد رح *

٨٠٥ - و عليه عامة المشائخ استحسانا *

(ب) قوله فيد تعامل عقام وقدوم و دراهم و دنانيركذا في التنوير - وهذا قول محمد رح و عليه الفتوى - در عن الاختيار - فاستفيد ان وقف الدراهم و الدنانير من قبيل وقف المتعامل - وهكذا يستفاد من عبارة الزيلمي والميني *

و على هذا فالتعامل في جميع البلدان ليس بشرط . و مند يعلم سقوط ما ذكرة في النهر بحثا حيث قال و مقتضى ما مومن محيد رح عدم جواز ذكر في الاقطار البصرية لعدم تعارفه بالكلية - نعم وقف الدراهم و المغانير تعورف في الديار الرومية التهى ب

يُّعلَى انه في شرع ملتقى الابعر للعلائي ذكر بعد قبل النَّتَن ه

وكذا المنقول المتعارف وقفه عند محمد رح فقال وكذا غير المتعارف ايضاً عند محمد رح كما في شرح الوهبانية عن الزاهدي عن السير الكبير و تبعد الشرنبلالي و اقرة القهستاني *

ثم قال فعلى مامر عن الزاهدي لا يحتاج لرواية الانصاري عن زفر رح * وقد ورد امر شريف للقضاة بالحكم به كما في معروضات المفتي ابى السعود ر ت منا يعلم ان ما انتى به بعضهم من ان القول بجواز وقف الدراهم ضعيف لكونه محكيا عن زفر رم غير صواب *

قولة يعني جوت العادة بوقفة _ لقولة علية الصلوق و السلام ما رآلا المسلمون حسنا فهو عند الله حسن - و لأن التعارف اقوى من القياس فيقرك به القياس كالاستصناء ...

البحر الرائق الجزء ه صفحه XVII. والبحر الرائق الجزء ه

و محله - المال المتقوم *

متن البحر الجزء صفحه ه ٢١٩

وصع وقف المقار ببقرة و اكرته و مشاع قضي بجوازة و منقول فيه تعامل *

و قال محمد رح يجوز وقف ما فيه تعامل من المنقولات - و اختارة اكثر فقهاء الإمصار [وهو الصحيح كما في الاسعاني و هو قول عامة المشائع كما في الظهيرية] - لأن القياس قد يترك بالتعامل كما في الاستصناع *

وقد حكى نى المجتبى هذا الخلاف فى المنقول على خلاف هذا وعزاة الى السير - فنقل قول محمد رح بجوازة مطلقا جرى التعارف به او لا - وقول ابي يوسف رح بجوازة ان جرى فيه تعامل - و مثل فى الهداية ما فيه تعامل كالفاس و المرو المنشار و الجنازة و ثبابها و القدور و المواجل و المصاحف - قال و عن نصير بن يحيى انه وقف كتبه الحاقا لها بالمصاحف وهذا صحيح *

وذكر في القحرير في بحث الحقيقة ان التعامل هو الاكثر استعمالا فلذا اقتصر الإمام محمد رعلى هذه الاشياء فخرج ما لا تعامل فيه كالثباب والحيوان والذهب والفضة ولوحليا لان الوقف فيه لا يتابد و لابد منه بخلاف الكراع و السلاح لورود النص بهما و ما ذكرناه للتعامل - فبقي ما عدا ذلك على اصل القياس *

Vol. VII, No. 6.] The Waqf of Moveables. [N.S.]

و قد زاد بعض المشائع اشياء من المنقول على ما قاله محمد رح لما رأوا من جريان التعامل بها - ففي الخلاصة وتف بقرة على ... رجوت ان يكون ذلك جائزا *

وعن الانصاري وكان صد اصحاب زفر رح في من وقف الدراهم او الدنانير او الطعام او ما يكال او يوزن ايجوز قال نعم «

و الأكسية و استرة المولى اذا وقف صدقة ابدا جاز و تدفع الاكسية للفقواء فينتقمون بها في اوقات لبسها *

ولو وقف ثورا لانزاء بقوهم لا يصبح *

[وفى الخلامة ايضا] يجوز وقف الغلمان و الجواري على مصالح الرباط كذا في فتع القدير ولم يذكر وقف السفينة ولم ار من صرح بها - و لا شك في دخولها لحت المنقول الذي لا تعامل فيه فلا يجوز وقفها ...

[وقد وقف بعضهم سفينة على مقام الشافعي رح فسألني عند فاجبت بعدم الصحة بناء على هذا م]

وقف بستانا لما فيد من البقر و الغذم و الوقيق يجوز *

وقف الادوية بالقيمارخانة لا يجوز اذا لم يذكر الفقراء - بقي مسئلتان - الأولى وقف البناء بدون الارض *

فى الذخيرة وقف البناء من غير وقف الاصل لم يجز وهو الصحيم لاأه منقول وقفه غير متعارى .

الثانية وقف الشجر .

· الهداية المطبوعة بمصر مع فقيم القدير- الجزء ه صفحه prq XVIII.

وقال محمد رح يجوز حبس الكراع و السلاح و معناء وقفه في سبيل الله و ابو يوسف رح معه فيه [على ما قالوا] وهو استحسان *

و القياس ان لا يجوز لما بيناء من قبل - وجه الاستحسان الآثار المشهورة فيه - منها قوله عليه الصلوة و السلام و اما خالد فقد حبس ادرعا و افراسا له في سبيل الله تعالى و طلحة حبس دروعه في سبيل الله تعالى *

و الكرام الخيل و يدخل في حكمة الابل لان العرب يجاهدون عليها - وكذا السلام يجبل عليها -

و عن محدد رح الديجوز وقف ما فيد تعامل من المنقولات كالمثلث والجور والقدوم والمغشار والجنازة وثيابها والقدور والمراجل والمساحف [وعدد ابن يوسف زح لا يجوز لان القياس الله يترك بالنص، والنعن ورد في الكراع والسلام فيقتصر عليه] •

و منعبد رح يقول القياس قد يترى بالتمامل كبا في الاستصداع وقد وجد التمامل في هذه الاشياء «

و عن نصیر بن یحیی اده وقف کنده الحاقا لها بالیماعف و هذا صحیح و و اکثر فقیاء الاحصار علی قول محمد رح وما لا تعامل فید لا یجوز عندنا وقفه ی

وقال الشائعي رح كل ما يمكن الانتفاع به مع بقاء اصله و يجوز بيعة يجوز وقفه لانه يمكن الانتفاع ته فاشبه العقار و الكواع و السلاح ...

ولنا ان الوقف فيه لا يتأبد ولابد منه على ما بينالا فصار كالدراهم و الدنائير بخلاف المقار ولا معارض من حيث السمع ولا من حيث التعامل فبقي على اصل القيامي و هذا لأن العقاريتأبد و الجهاد سنام الدين فكان معنى القربة فيهما اقوى فلا يكون غيرهما في معناهما *

فتع القدير العطدرع بمصر - الجزء و صفحة ٢١٨، XIX.

ثم قال القدوري - وقال ابو يوسف رحمه الله تعالى اذا وقف ضيعة ببقرها و اكرتها و هم مبيدة جاز - ولو صرفى بعضهم فتعطل عن العمل فللقيم ان يبيع من عجز و يشترى بدهنه آخر يعمل كما لوقتل فاخذ دية عليه ان يشتري بها آخر ه

[قال المصلف رح و قال محمد رحمد الله تعالى يجوز حبس الكواع و وي الخيل و السلاح و ومعناه وقفد في سبيل الله تعالى و ابو يوسف رح معد ويضا في ذلك على ما قالوا و هذا استحسان *]

وجد الاستحسان الآثار المشهورة فيد - اى فى الكرام و السلام - صنها قولة صلى الله عليه وسلم فى الصحيحين عن ابى هريرة واما خالد فاتكم تظلمون خالدا وقد احتبس ادراعه و اعتدة في سبيل الله و اما ما ذكر المصنف عن ان خلاصة جبس مروعة وفي زواية ادراعة و اعتدة فلم يعرفه *

إلا الحاصل إن وقف المنظول تبعا للمقار يجوز - وإما وقفه مقصودا إن كان كراما أو سلاحا برائد وقيما سوى ذلك إن كان مما لم يجوز التعامل يوقف كالقياب و الحيوان و نحوه و الدعب و الفضة لا يجوز عندنا و إن كان متعارفا كالجنازة و المقان و القيور في و القيور في عسل البوتي و القيور في عسل البوتي و المساحف قال ابو يوسف رح لا يجوز و قال محدد رح يجوز و الده ذهب عامة المشائح - صلهم الامام السرخسي كذا في المخلاصة في المشائح - صلهم الامام السرخسي كذا في المخلاصة في

وصلى قبل محمد رح اكثر فقهاء الأمصار وما لا تعليه فقه لا يحبر وقفه عندنا وقال الشافعي رح كل ما إمكن الانقفاع بالموقف مان ويجوز بيعة يجوز وقفة عندنا وقفة وفيا قبل مالك و احمد رح ايضا ، و أما رفق مان الموقف به الا بالاثلاث كالشعب و الفضة و الماكول و النشروب فغير جائز في قول عامة ا

و المراد بالدهب و الفضة الدراهم و الدناندر وما ليس بحلي و إما الحلي فيصح وقفة مده احدد رح و الشافعي رح لان حفصة رضى الله عنها ابتاعت حليا بعشوين الفا فحبسته على نساء آل الخطاب فكانت لا تخرج زكاته و عن احدد رح لا يصم وقفه و الكر الحديث ذكرة ابن قدامة في البغني *

و حاصل وجه الجماعة القياس على الكراع و عارضه المصنف بان حكم الوقف الشرعي التابيد ولا يتأبد فيو العقار غير الله قرك في الجهاد *

و أذا عرفت هذا فقد زاد بعض المشائع اشياء من المنقول على ما ذكرة محمد لما رأوا من جريان التعامل فيها *

وقف بقرة على إن ما يخرج من لبنها و سمنها يعطى البناء السبيل يكون جائزا - وعن الانصاري وكان من اصحاب زفر فيمن وقف المراهم أو الطمام أو ما يكال أو ما يكال أو ما يرزن ايجوز ذلك - قال نعم *

و الاكسية و استرة الموتي اذا وقف صدقة ابدا جاز [فقدفع الاكسية للفقراء فينتفعون بها في اوقات لبسها] ...

يجوز وقف الغلمان و الجوازي على معدلم الرباط .

الكفاية على الهداية المطبوعة بمصر - صفحة و الهزو خاصس . XX. قوله صع بقاء اصله - استراز عن الدراهم و الدنانير قان الانقفاع الذي خلفت الدراهم والدنانير لاجلة وهو الثبنية لا يقبكن بهما مع بقاء اصله في ملكه م قوله و يجوز بيمة احتراز من ام الولد فانه لا يجوّر وقَّفها * قوله ولا معارض من حيث السمع *

و القياس في المنقول أن لا يصح وقفه لأن الوقف فيد لايتأبد ولابد صن النابيد الا أن السبع مارض القياس في البعض كما في الكراع والسلاح حيث وردت الأنار المشهورة وفي الدمض عارض القياس النعامل كما في الفاس والمو والقدوم والقدور والمراجل فبقى الباقي كالثياب والبسط وكالعبيد والاماء فصدا على القياس اذ لا معارض فيها عن حيث السبع و التعامل .

المنابع على الهداية صفحة و عم الجزء خامس XXI. ولنا أن الوقف في المنقول لا يتأبد وهو ظاهر وما لا يتأبد لايك وقفه .. لان التَّابيد لابد منه على ما بيناء فصارت المنقولات كالدراهم و الدنانير و قوله -بخلاف العقار - جواب من اعتبارة بالعقار .

و قوله . ولا معارض من حيث السمع - جواب عن قوله فاشبه الكرام و السلاح ووجهة ان الاصل لا يجوز وقف الكراع و السلاح ايضا كالدراهم الا الا و تركناه بمعارض راجع من حيث السمع *

و قوله - ولا من حيث القعامل - جواب عما يقال توك الاصل في الكواع و السلاح بمعارض من هيث السمع وهو ليس بموجود في المراجل و القدوم و غيرهما فلتكن صورة الدزاع مقيسة على ذلك .

ووجهة أن لهما معارضا من حيث القعامل وليس بموجود في صورة النؤام كالعبيد و الاماء و النياب و البسط و امثالها فدةى على اصل القياس *

[و قوله . وهذا - استظهار على ان الحاق غير العقار والكراع و السلاح بهما عير جائل لان عيرهما لقوتهما ليس في معناهما] ولم يدكر التعامل اعتمادا على شهرة كون النعامل اقوى هن القياس فجاز أن يترك به *

حاشية سمدي چليي على العذاية صفحة . سم الجزء الخامس XXII. قولة يعنى مامر أن من شرطة التأبيد والنأبيد لا يتحقق في المنقول اقول وفيد تأمل كتب و جهة في الجواب عن دليل الشافعي رح على ما يجيء * قال المصنف رح - والابد منه على ما بيناة - اقول اللازم من الدليل هو تابد الوقف مدة بقاء الموقوف و ذلك موجود في محل النزاع ايضا فليتأمل *

الميني على الهداية صفحه سهه الجزء الثاني XXIII.

[ش - اى عند محمد رح فيما تعارف الناس وقفه كالمنشار و الفاس و الجنازة و المحمدف لقراءة القرآن و القدور و المراجل وما لم يتعارف الناس وقفه لا يجوز وقفه كوقف الثياب وغيرها من الاستعقام]

وقال الشافعي و مالك و احدد رحمهم الله تعالى يجوز وقف كل ما ينقفع به مع بقاء عينه وعن مالك رح في الكواع والسلاح روايتان و اما وقف مالا ينتفع به الا بالاتلاف كالدهب و الفضة و الماكول و المشروب فقبل غير جائز في قول عامة الفقهاء و اهل العلم الا ما حكي عن مالك و الاوزاعي ان وقف الطعام يجوز ولم يحكه اصحاب مالك رح وليس بصحيح *

م -- واصا خالد رضى الله منه فقد حبس ادرما و افراسا له في سبيل الله . . تعالى به

ش - هذا الحديث روالا البخارى و مسلم [عن ابي الزناد عن الاعرج] عن ابي هويرة *

م - وقال الشافعي رح كل ما يمكن الانتفاع بد مع بقاء اصله *

ش - احترزيه عن الدراهم و الدنانير فان الانتفاع الذي خلقت الدراهم والدنانير لاجله وهو الثمنية [لا يمكن فيهما مع بقاء اصله في ملك] *

م -- يجوز وقفه *

م -- لانه يمكن الانتفاع به فاشده العقار و الكراع و السلام *

[عن -- و وجهد ان الاصل لا يجوز وقف الكراع والسلاح اى فاشبد ما يذتفع بند مع بقاء اصلد العقار في صحة وقفه *]

م - ولذا أن الوقف فيه .

الله ساي في المنقول الذي ذكور .

م - لا يقأبد ولابد منه ..

ش - اي و الحال لابد من التأبيد وما لا يتأبد لا يجوز وقفه .

م ــ على ما بيناء .

ش — فيما قبل من اشتراط التأبيد .

__ نصار ه

يل - اي كل ما يدفع بد مع بقاء اصاد .

م ــ كالمراهم و الدنالير .

ين _ في عدم الجواز .

م __ بعلاق العقار .

ين ... قان فيد التأبيد وإن لم يذكر ولم يشقوط *

م __ ولا معارض من حيث السمع •

الله - جواب عن قوله فاشده العقار و الكواع و السلاح ايضا .

م _ ولا من حيث التعامل ه

ش بجواب عما يقال قرى الاصل في الكواع و السلاح المعارض من حيث السمع وهو ليس بموجود في المر و القدوم وغيرهما فليكن صورة الذراع مقيسة على ذلك »

و وجهة ان لهما معارضا من حيث التعامل وليس بموجود في صورة النزاع كالعبيد و الاماء و الثياب و البسط و امثالها *

قال صاحب المحيط وقف مائة و خمسين دينارا على موضي بطويق الوصية يصبح و يدفع الذهب الى انسان بمضاربة يستعملها و يصوف الربح، و فى المحيط كذلك وقف الدراهم و المكيل و المعزون *

مستخلص الحقائق عامه عرب XXIV. مستخلص

منقول فید تعامل للناس کفأس و قدوم و دراهم و دنانیرو قدر و جنازة و ثنابه و مصحف و کتب بحلاق مالا تعامل فید *

كذر الديان الجزء الإول صفحة 117 XXV.

و یجوز وقف منقول قصدر مما نید تعامل الناس کفاس و قدوم و دراهم و وظاهر و قدر و جذازة و گیابها و مصحف و کتب بخلاف مالا تعامل قید کثیاب و مناع علی قول محمد و علید الفتوی ، العيني على الكنز كتاب الوقف صفحه ٢٨٧١. المناء القاني المناء القاني أوضح ايضا وقف مشاع قضى بجوازه الى بجواز الوقف فيده الان قضاء القاني يقطع الخلاق في المجتهدات و ان لم يقض فيد فعلى قول ابي يوسف رح يجوز خلافا لمحمد رح منها

وصم ایضا رقف منقول کالکراع و السلام و الفاس و القدر و القدوم و المنشار و الجنازة و ثیابها و المصاحف و کنب الفقه و الحدیث و الادبیة وغیر ذلک مما فید تعامل او تعارف بوقفه وهو قول محمد رح و علیه الفقوی لو رود آلاثار بذلک مو و الشافعي رح جوز وقف کل ما یجوز بیمه و یمکن الانتفاع به مع بقاء عینه قیاسا علی الکراع و السلام ه

قلنا الاصل عدم جواز الوقف فيقتصر على مورد الشرع وهو العقار و الكواع فيبقى مأوراء على اصل القياس الا ماجرى التعامل فيه فصار كالدراهم والدنانير «

العيني على الكنز صفحة ٢٩٢ - XXVII.

[فيد تعامل اى صم الوقف في منقول تعورف بين الناس الوقف فيد كما في عذي الأشياء يؤيد هذا الاستخراج قول صاحب البيان في شرح قول صاحب الهداية وقد وجد التعامل في هذه الأشياء الى في وقف عفة الاشياء م

قولة نيم تعامل [فقوله و منقول بالجر عدف على مشاع] اى وصع وقف المنقول الذي فيم تعامل الناس اى قد جرت العادة في وقفه وهذا على قول محمد رح و عليم الفتوى و قيل ان ابا يوسف رح معم [ثم هذا استحسان *]

الجزء الثالث من تنوير الابصار .XXVIII ولو وقف العقار ببقرة و اكرته كما مع وقف قضى بجوازة و منقبل ميد تعامل كفاس و قدوم و درا هم و دنانير *

الجزء الثالث من الدر المختار .XXIX

و جاز وقف القن على مصالح الرباط خلاصة . ولو قتل عمدا لا قود فيه بزازية - فك تجب قيمته ليشترى بها بدله كما صم وقف مشاع - لانه مجتهد فيه فللحنفي المقلد ان يحكم بصحة وقف المشاع و بطلانه لا خقلاني القرجيح

و أذا كان في المسئلة قولان مصححان جاز الافتاء و القضاء الحدهما بحر

وكما سج ايضا وقف كل منقول قصدا فيد تعامل كفاس وقدوم بل ودراهم ودنانير قلت بل ورد الإمرللقضاة بالحكم بد كما في معروضات المفتي ابى السعود [ومكيل وموزون] و فيها [اى الخلاصة] وقف بقرة على ان ما خرج من لبنها اوسمنها للفقراء ان اعتادوا ذلك رجوت ان يجوز وقدر وجذازة و ثيابها ومصحف وكتبلان التعامل يترك بد القياس لحديث ماراة المسلمون حسنا فهو عند الله حسن بخلافي ما لا تعامل فيد كثياب و مقاع و هذا قول محمد رح [و عليد الفتوى اختبار] و الحق في البحر السفينة بالمتاع و في البزازية جاز وقف الاكسية على الفقراء *

رد المحتار .XXX

مه م عوله و جاز وقف لقن على مصالع الرباط - ظاهرة جواز وقفه استفلالا ويؤيدة انه ذكرة في الفتع عن الخلاصة في مسائل وقف المنقول الذي جرى فية التعامل فكان ينبغي للشارح ذكرة بعد قول المصنف و منقول فيه تعامل لللا يتوهم ان المراد انه وقف تبعا للرباط كما توهمه في البحرة مده و لو باع العاجل و اشترى بثمنه عبدا مكانه جاز *

وقال في موضع إشر و كذلك الدواليب و الآلات يبيعها ويشتري بثمنها ما مو اصلي للوقف *

قولة كما صم وقف مشاع قضى بجوازة - ويصير بالقضاء متفقا عليه و الخلاق في وقف المشاع مبني على اشتراط التسليم و عدمه لأن القسمة من اتمامه فابو يوسف رح اجازة لأنه لم يشترط التسليم و محمد رح لم يجزة لاشتراطه التسليم *

وقدمنا ان محل الخلاف فيما يقبل القسمة بخلاف مالا يقبلها فيجوز النفاقا الا في المسجد والمقبرة *

قوله لانه مجتبد فيه - اى بسوغ فيه الاجتهاد لمدم مطالفته لنص

قوله فللحنفي المقلد الغ - و لذا قال في الدرر من كتاب القضاء عندالكلام في قضاء القاضي بخلاف مذهبه ان المراد به خلاف اصل المذهب كالحنفي

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اذا حكم على مدهب الشائعي واءاً اذا حكم الحلقي بما ذهب اليد ابوبوسف رح ومحمد رح او تحوهما من اصحاب الامام قليس حكما بخلافي رايد ..

[فقد افاد ان اقوال اصحاب الامام غير خارجة من مدميد فقد نقلوا منهم انهم ما قالوا قولا الا هو مروي عن الامام كما اوضحت ذلك في شرح منظومتي في رسم المفتي *]

قوله لاختلاف التوجیع - فان کلا من قول ابي بوسف رح و قول محمد رح صحع بلفظ القدوى کمامر *]

قولة قولان مصححان - اى وقد تساويا في لفظ التصحيح و الا فالاولى اللخذ بما هو آكد فى القصحيح كما لو كان احدهما بلفظ الصحيح و الاخر بلفظ علية الفقوى فان الثاني اقوى و كذا لو كان احدهما فى المقون او كان ظاهر الرواية او كان عليه الاكثر او كان هو الارفق بالناس فانه اذا صح هو و مقابلة كان الاخذ به اولى كما قدمناه في اول الكتاب .

قوله باحدهما - اي باي واحد منهما اراد لكن اذا قضى باحدهما في حادثة ليس له القضاء فيها بالقول الاخر[نعم يقضي به في حادثة غيرها] و كذا المفقي و ينبغي ان يكون مطبح نظرة الى ما هو الارفق و الاصلم و هذا معني قولهم ان المفتي يفتي بما يقع عندة من المصلحة الى المصلحة الدينية لا المصلحة الدنيوية *

قولة كل منقول قصدا - اما تبعا للعقار فهو جائز بلا خلاف عندهما كما مو كما لا خلاف في صحة وقف السلاح و الكراع الى الخيل للآثار المشهورة و الخلاف فيما سوى ذلك فعند ابى يوسف رح لا يجوز و عند محمد رح يجوز ما فيه تعامل من المنقولات و اختارة اكثر فقهاء الامصار كما فى الهداية و هو الصحيح كما فى الاسعاف و هو قول اكثر المشائخ كما فى الظهيرية لان القياس قد يترك بالتعامل و نقل فى المجتبى عن السير جواز وقف المنقول مطلقا عند محمد رح و اذا جرى فيه المتعامل عند ابي يوسف رح و تمامه فى البحر و المشهور الاول * قولة بل و دراهم و دنابير - عزالا فى الخلاصة الى الإنصارى و كان من قولة بل و دراهم و دنابير - عزالا فى الخلاصة الى الإنصارى و كان من

اصحاب زفر رح و عزاد فى الخانية الى زفر رح حيث قال و عن زفر شرنبلاليده « و قال المصنف فى المنع و لما جرى التعامل في زماننا فى البلاد الرومية و غيرها في وقف الدراهم و الدنائير دخلت تحت قول محمد المفتى به في وقف كل منقول قيد تعامل كما لا يتعفى قلا يحتاج على هذا إلى تخصيص القول بجواز وقفها بدهب الامام زفو من رواية الانصاري و الله تعالى اعلم وقد افتى مولانا صاحب البحر بجواز وقفها و لم يحك خلافا انتهى .

قال الرملي لكن في الحاقها بمنقول فيه تعامل نظر اذ هي مما لا ينتفع بها صع بقاء مهنها على ملك الواقف و افتاء صاحب البحر بجواز وقفها بلا حكاية خلاف لا يدل على انه داخل تحت قول محمد المفتي به في وقف منقول فيه تعامل لاحتمال انه اختار قول زفورج و افتى به و صا استدل به في المنع من مسئلة البقرة الآتية ممنوع بما قلنا اذا ينتفع بلينها و سمنها مع بقاء عينها لكن اذا حكم به حاكم ارتفع الخلافي انتهى ملخصا *

قلت الدراهم لا تتعين بالتعيين فهي و ان كانت لا ينتفع بها مع بقاء عينها لكن بدلها قائم مقامها لعدم تعينها فكانها باقية و لاشك في كونها من المنقول فحيث جرى فيها تعامل دخلت فيها اجازة صحمد رح و لهذا لها مثل صحمد باشياء جرى فيها التعامل في زمانه قال فى الفتح ان بعض المشائخ زادوا اشياء من المنقول على ما ذكرة محمد رح لها رأوا جريان التعامل فيها و ذكر منها مسئلة البقرة الآتية و مسئلة الدراهم و المكيل حيث قال ففي الخلاصة وقف بقرة على ان ما يخرج من لبنها و سمنها يعطى لابناء السبيل آبال ان كان ذلك في موضع غلب ذلك في اوآفهم رجوت أن يكون جائزا و عن الانساري و كان من اصحاب زفر فيمن وقف الدراهم او ما يكال او ما يوزن ا يجوز ذلك قال نعم قبل و كيف قال يدفع الدراهم مضاربة ثم يتصدق بها في الوجه الذي وقف عليه و ما يكال و يوزن يباع و يدفع ثمنه لمضاربة او بضاعة قال فعلى هذا القياس اذا وقف كرا من الحنطة على شرط ان يقرض للفقراء الذين لا بذر لهم اليزرعولا لانفسهم ثم يوخذ منهم بعد الإدراك قدر القرفي ثم يقرض لغيرهم من المقاراء ابدا على هذا السبيل يجب ان يكون جائزا ه

و بهذا ظهر صحة ما ذكرة المصنف من الحاقها بالمنقبل المتعارف على قول محدد المفتى به و النما خصوها بالنقل عن زفر لانها لم تكن متعارفة اذ ذاك ولأنه هو الذي قال بها ابتداء .

قال في النهر و مقتضى مامر من محبد رح عدم جواز ذلك إي وقف المنافير المصرية لعدم تعارفه بالكلية نعم وقف الدراهم و الدنافير تعرف في الديار الزومية انتهى ه

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قوله إلى التعامل يترى به القياس - فإن القياس عدم صحة وقف المنقول الان من شرط الوقف النابيد و المنقول الا يدوم و التعامل كما في البحر عن التحرير هو الاكثر استعمالاً وفي شرح البيري عن المبسوط أن الثابت بالعرف كالثابت بالنص انتهى *

و تمام تحقيق ذلك في رسالتنا المسماة نشر العرف في بناء بعض الإحكام على العرف و ظاهر مامر في مسئلة البقرة اعتبار العرف الحادث فلايلزم كونه من عهد الصحابة و كذا هو ظاهر ما قدمناه آنفا من زيادة بعض المسائخ اشياء جرى التعامل فيها و على هذا فالظاهر اعتبار العرف في الموضع او الزمان الذي اشتمر فيه دون غيرة فوقف الدراهم متعارف في بلاد الروم دون بلادنا و وقف الفاس و القدرم كان متعارفا في زمن المتقدمين و لم نسمع به في زمانا ح

فالظاهر الله لا يصبح الآن ولثن وجد فادرا لا يعتبر لما علمت من الله التعامل هو الاكثر استعمالا فتأمل *

قوله لحديث الم - رواة احدد [في كتاب السدة] *

قوله و متاع - ما يتبتع به فهو عطف عام على هامى فيشبل ما يستعبل في البيت من الله المنزل كفراش و بساط و حصير لغير مسجد و الاواني و القدور نعم تعورف وقف الاواني من النحاس و نص البتقدمون علي وقف الاواني و القدور البحتاج اليها في غسل الموتى .

قوله و هذا - اي جواز وقف المنقول المتعارف .

قرلة و الحق في البحر السفينة بالمناع - اي فلا يصبح لكن قال شيخ مشائخنا السائحاني انهم تعاملوا وقفها فلا تردن في صحته انتهى و كانه حدث بعد صاحب البحرو الحق في المفع وقف البناء بدون الارض *

۳۸۷ جاز وقف الأكسية النج قلت و في زماننا قد وقف بعض المنولين على الموذيين الفراء شقاء ليلا فينبغي الجواز سيما على مامر عن الزاهدي فتدور شرح الملتقى اى ما ذكرة الزاهدي في المجتبى من جواز وقف المنقول مطلقا عند محمد رح *

قوله أن يعصون جاز - هذا الشرط مبني على ما ذكود شهس الأثبة من الضابط وهو أنه أذا ذكر للوقف مصرفا لابد أن يكون فيهم تنصيص على الحاجة حقيقة كالفقراء أو استعبالا بين الناس كاليتامي والزمني لأن الغالب فيهم الفقر

فيضير للأغنياء والفقواء منهم أن كانوا يحصون و الا فلفقوائهم فقط [وحتى ذكري مصرفا يستوى فيد الافنياء والفقواء فان كانوا يحصون صع باعتبار اعيانهم و الا بطل] ..

و روى عن محمد رح أن مالا يحصى عشرة و عن أبي يوسف رح مالة و هو الماخون به عند البعض و قيل اربعون و قيل ثمانون .

و الفتوى على انه مفوض الى راي الحاكم اسعاف و بحر ه

الطحطاوي الجزء م صفحة وسه XXXI.

و البشهور أن معمدا هو الذي قال بصحة ما تعوري وقفه منه و أبا يوسف يمنعه .

و حكي في المجتبى أن محمدا بجوزة مطلقا و أن أبا يوسف يجوز اذا جرى به النعامل *

وظاهر النهر قصر صحة وقفه في إماكن تعورف وقفه فيهم ونازعه ابو السعرد في ذلك فراجعه - قوله بالحكم به - اى بوقف الدراهم و الداللذور ای بصحنه *

قوله كثياب - يخص مده الاكسية الاتي ذكرها .

قوله و مقاع - هو ما ينتفع به مما لم تجو العادة بوقفه كبابوج و حصو إبجلس مليها في فير مسجد و نحوه *

قال في البحر وخرج الحيوان و الذهب و الفضة و لو حليا لأن الوقف فيد لا يتأبد *

وفي شرح العموي قد جرى التعامل بوقف الة القيانة فينبغي ان يصيع

قولة و هذا - اي ما ذكر من التفصيل *

قوله و الحق في البحر السفينة بالمناع - إذا لم يجر التعارف بوقفها وقد جرى في زماننا العرف في سفن بحر القلزم فان بعضها وقف على نقل غلال الحرمين افاده الحلبي .

والمرابع المعاز وقف الاكسية على الفقراء *

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فان ضعف الوقيق من المبل فان له ان يجيعه و يشتري بثبند غلاما مكاند فان لم يجد بثبند غلاما مكاند فاراد ان يزيد في ذلك من غلة الارض فلا بأس بذلك ...

و كذلك الحكم في الدواب و آلات الزراعة اذا وقفت مع الارض *
و لو قتل قاخذ دينة فعلى القيم ان يشتري بها آخر كذا في فتح القدير
[والاسماف] *

و إما وقف المنقول مقصودا أن كان كراعا أو سلاحاً يجوز و فيها سوى ذلك أن كان شيئًا لم يجوز عندنا *

و أن كان متمارمًا كالفاس و القدوم و الجنازة و ثباب الجنازة و ما يحتاج اليد من الأواني و القدور في غسل البوتي و المصاحف قال أبو يوسف رح أنه لا يجوز وقال محمد يجوز و الده ذهب عامة المشائخ رح منهم الأمام السوخسي كذا في الخلاصة و هو المجتارة

و الفتوى على قول مصدد رح . و لو جمل جنازة

وقف البصحف يجوز *

و اختلف الناس في وقف الكتب [جوزه الفقية ابو الليث رح و عليه الفقوى كذا في فتاوى قاضيخان]

[اذا جعل ظهر دابقه او غلة عبدة في المساكين لا يصبح في قول علمائنا رح كذا في المحيط *]

رجل وقف بقرة على أن ...جاز كما يجوز ماء السقاية كذا في الظهيرية *
، ولا يجوز وقف فحل البقر[وقف البناء من غير وقف الاصل لم يجز وهو الصحيم *]

وكذلك وقف الكودار بدون وقف الارض يجوز و هو المختار كذا

ولا يجوز وقف البناء في ارض

ان وقف حوانيت الاسواق يجوز [ان كانت الارض باجارة] *

وقف الغلمان و الجواري على مصالح الرباط يجوز *

و اما وقف مالا ينتفع به الا بالإثلاث كالذهب و الفضة و الباكول المشروب فعير جائز في قول عامة الفقهاء *

و المواد بالذهب و القضة الدراهم و الدنائيو و ما ليس بعلي كذا في فتح القدير ...

و لو رفف الدراهم او مكيلا او ثيابا لميجز و قيل في موضع تعارفوا ذلك يفتى بالجواز [قيل كيف قال الدراهم يقرضى للفقراء ثم يقبضها او يدفع مضاربة و يتصدق بالربع و الحاطة تقرض للفقراء يزرعون ثم يوخذ منهم و التياب و الاكسية تعطى للفقراء ليلبسونها عند حاجتهم ثم ياخذوا كذا في الفتاوى المتابية ها

العالمكيرية الجزء السادس XXXIII.

و في فقاوى ابى الليث اذا وقف بقوة على رباط على ان ما يخرج من البنها و سمنها يعطي لابناء السبيل قال بعض مشائخنا ان كان في موضع يغلب ذلك في او قافهم رجوت ان يكون جائزا و قال بعضهم بالجواز مطلقا لانه جوى التعارف بدلك في بلاد المسلمين *

عمدة القارى الجزء السادس - صفحة ١١٩ مدة

مى ـ باب وقف الدواب و الكواب و المحروض و الصامت ـ ش . اى هذا باب في بيان وقف الدواب الى آخرة و اشار بهذه الترجمة الى جواز وقف المنقولات و الكراء اسم للخيل و العروض جمع عرض و هو المتاع لا نقد فيه و الصامت ضد الناطق و اريد به النقد من المال ـ ص ـ قال الزهري فيمن جعل الف دينار في سبيل الله و دفعها الى غلام له تاجر يتجر بها و جعل ربعه صدقة للمساكين و الاقربين هل للرجل ان ياكل من ربع ذلك الالف شيئا و ان لم يكن جعل ربعة صدقة في المساكين قال ليس له ان ياكل منها « شيئا و ان لم يكن جعل ربعة صدقة في المساكين قال ليس له ان ياكل منها «

فتے الداري . XXXV

آ باب وقف الدواب و الكراع و العروض و الصامت - هذه الترجمة معقودة البيان وقف المنقولات ، و الكراع اسم لجميع الخيل فهو بعد الدواب من عطف

العقاص ملى العام و العروض جمع عرض و هو جميع صاعدا النقد من المال -و الصامت بالمهملة بلفظ ضد الناطق و المواد به من النقد الذهب و الفضة و وجه اخد ذلك من حديث الباب المشتمل على قصة فرس عمر انها دالة على صحة وقف المنقولات فيلحق به ما في معدالا من المنقولات اذا وجد الشرط او هو تحبيس العين فلا تباع و لا توهب بل ينتفع بها و الانتفاع في كل شي بعصبه - قوله و قال الزهري الغ - هو ذهاب من الزهري الى جواز مثل ذلك و قد اخوجه عدم هكدا ابن وهب في موطقه من يونس عن الزهري ثم ذكر المصنف حديث ابن عمر في قصة عمر في المعنف الغيب في سبيل الله ثم وجده يباع و قد تقدم شرحه مستوفى في البية واعترضة الاسماليلي فقال لم يذكر في الباب الا الأثر عن الزهري و العِقْتيت في قصه الفرس التي حمل عليها عمر فقط و اثر الزهري خلاف ما تقدم من الوقف الدي اذن فيه النبي صلعم لعمر بان يحبس اصله و ينتفع بثمرته و الصامت انما ينتفع به بان يعدرج بعيدة الى شيء غيرة وليس هذا بتحبيس الاصل و الانتفاع بالثمرة بل المانون فيه ما عاد منه نفع بفضل كالثمرة و الغلة و الارتفاق و العين قائمة فاما مالا ينتفع به بافاتة عينه ولا اهم ملخصا] و جواب هذا الاعتراض ان الذي حصرة في الانتفاع بالصامت ليس بمسلم بل يمكن الانتفاع بالصامت بطريق الارتفاق بان يحبس مثلا منه ما يجوز لدسه للمرأة فيصم بان يحبس اصله و ينتفع به النساء باللبس عند الحاجة اليه كما تقدم توجيهة و الله اعلم *

فقع الباري .XXXVI

باب اذا تصدق او وتف بعض ماله او بعض رقیقد او دوابه فهو جائز

هذا الترجمة معقودة لجواز وقف المنقول [و المخالف فين ابو حايفة رح يوخذ منها جواز وقف المشاع و المخالف فيه محمد بن الحسن لكن خص المنع بما يمكن قسمة و احتج له الجوري و هو من الشافعية بان القسمة بيع و بيع الوقف الايجوز و تعقب بان القسمة افراز محدور] و وجه كونه يوعخذ منه وقف المشاع و وقف المنقول هو من قوله او بعض رقيقه او دوابه فانه يدخل فيه ما أذا وقف جزأ من العبد او الدابة او وقف احد عبديه او فوسيه مثلا فيصم كل ذلك عند من يجيز وقف المنقول و يرجع اليه في التعيين - [قوله فيصم كل ذلك عند من يجيز وقف المنقول و يرجع اليه في التعيين - [قوله فيصم كل ذلك عند من يجيز وقف المنقول و يرجع اليه في التعيين - [قوله قلت با رسول الله ان من توبتي - هذا طرف من حديث كعب بن مالك في

قصة تخلف من عروة بتوى وسياتي الحديث بطولة. في كتاب البغازي من المتعلقة المتعلقة من عروة بتوى من المتعلقة الترجية مند قولة اسبب عليك بعض مالك فائه ظاهر في امرة باخراج بعض مالد من غير تقصيل بين ان يكون مقسوما او مشاعا في البناع و الله اعلم] *

شرائع الاسلام صفحة XXXVII. ١١٨

كتاب العارية . . . و الكلام في فصول اربعة الأول في المعير ... و الثاني في المستمير ... و الثاني في المستمير ... الثالث في العين المعارة وهي كل صا يصح الانتفاع به مع بقاء عينه «

شرائع الاسلام صفحة ٢٢١

و يجوز استيجار الدراهم والدنانير ال الحققت لها منفعة حكمية مع بقاء مينها *

شرائع الاسلام صفحة عرام XXXVIII. الاسلام

الأول في شوائط الموقوف وهي اربعة ان يكون عينا مملوكة ينتفع بها مع بقائها ويصبح اقباضها فلا يصبح وقف ماليس بعين كالدين و كذا لو قال وقفت فرسا او ناضعا او دارا و لم يعين ويصبح وقف العقار و الثياب و الآلات المباحة و ضابطه كل ما يصبح الانتفاع به منفعة محللة مع بقاء عينه و كذا يصبح وقف الكلب المملوك و السنور لامكان الانتفاع و لا يصبح وقف الخذرير لانه لا يملكه المسلم ولا وقف التناير و الدراهم قيل لا و هو الاظهر لانه لا نفع لها الا التصرف فيها و قيل يصبح لانه قد يفرض لها نفع مع بقاءها »

مسالك الإفهام - المطبوعة بطهران صفحة ه ٣٩٥ (XXXIX.

قوله و مل يصبح وقف الدنانير و الدراهم الن و الاقوى الجواز لان هذه المنافع مقصودة ولا يدنع قوة غيرما عليها *

المدونة الكبرى - الجزء الثاني صفحة ١٠٣ - XL. [في زكاة الثمار المحبسة و الأبل و الأذهاب]

قطنت لبالک او قبل له فاو آن رجلا حبس مالة دينار موقوقة يسلفها الفاس و يردونها على ذلك جعلها حبسا هل ترى فيها الزكاة - فقال - نعم ارى

عُيهِ الرَّاةِ ، قلت له فلو أن رجلا جعل مائة دينار في سبيل الله تفرق أو على المساكمين فصال عليها الحول هل توعد منها الزعاة - فقال - لا هذه كلها تقرق و ليست مثل الاولى .

المختصر لسيدي خليل مفحة المرا XLII.

صم وقف معلوك و ان باجرة ولو حيوانا و رقيقا كعبد على مرضي لم يقصد خروه و في كطعام تردد .

الدودير . مفحة ، ٧ الى ٧٠ و الدسوقي . صفحة ٧٠ الجزء الرابع XLII.

(وقف مملوک) ولو بالتعليق (كان) ملكت دار فلان فهي وقف او كان مشتركا شائعاً فيما يقبل القسمة ويجبر عليها الواقف أن أزادها الشريك وأما ما لا يقبلها ففيد قولان مرجحان و على الصحة يجبر الواقف على البيع أن أراده شريكه ويجعل ثمنه في مثل وقفه و اداد بالمبلوى ما يشبل ملك الذات و ملك المنفعة فلذا قال - (و ان) كان الملك المدلول عليه بعملوك (باجرة) كدار استاجرها مدة معلومة فله وقف منفعتها في نلك المدة [وينقفى الوقف بالقضائها] لانه لا يشترط فيه التابيد كما سياتي و شمل قوله باجرة من استاجر دارا محبسة مدة فله تحبيس منفعتها على مستحق آخر غير المستحق الاول في تلك المدة و اما المحبس عليه فليس له تحبيس المُنْفِعة التي يستحقها لأن الحبس لا يعبس (ولو) كان المملوك (حيوانا ورقيقا) من عطف الخاس على العام اى فيصم وقفه و يلزم وكذا اللياب على المذهب (تعبد على مرضي) لخدمتهم حيث (لم يقصد) السيد (ضررة) بدلك و الا لم يصبح و مثل العبد الاصة على اناث وليس له حينك وطوعها لان منفعتها صارت بوقفها للغير كالمستعارة الموهونة (و في) جواز (وقف كطعام) مما لا يعرف بعيدة اذا غيب عليه كالنقد روهو المذهب ويدل له قول المصنف في الزكاة و زكيت عين وقفت للسلف و عدم الجواز الصادق بالكراهة و المنع (تردد) وقيل أن القوده في غير العين صن سائر المثليات واما العين فلا تردد فيها بل يجوز وقفها قطعا لانة نعي المدونة و العرام (١) وقفه للسلف و ينزل رد بدلة بقاء عينه وإما إن وقف مع بقاء عيده فل يجون انفاقا اذ و منفعة شرعية تترتب على ذلك . (۱) قوله و المواد النج - اشار بهذا الى ان محل التردد حيث ـ XLIII. وقف للانتفاع به ورد مثله و اما اذا وقف مع بقاء عينه كما لووقف الأجل تزيين الحوانيت فاذه يمنع اتفاقا و يكون الوقف باطلا *

الدردير - صفحة ١٤١٢ و الدسوقي - صفحة ١٤٢ الجزء الاول XLIV. (و زكيت) وخوبا (عين) ذهب او نضة (وقفت (٢) للسلف) اى يزكيها - الواقف او المتولى عليها منها ان مو عليها حول من يوم ملكها *

(٣) قولة وقفت للسلف - اى وقفت لكون المحقاج يقسلفها XLV. و يود بدلها عند يسارة و سواء وقفت على صعينين او غيرامعينين وما ذكرة مبني على المعقد من جواز وقف العين للسلف *

و حاصل ماذكرة إن العين الموقوفة للسلف إذا لم يتسلفها XLVI. احد وجب على الناظر أو الواقف زكاتها كل عام أن مر لها حول من يوم صلكها *

غاية البيان XLVII.

صحـــته من مالک تبرها بکل عین جاز ان ینتفعا بها صـع البقا منجزا علی موجود آن تعلیکه ناهالا

شرح فاية البيان على زبد الشيخ احمد بن رسلان .XLVIII للعالم العلامة شمس الدين محمد بن احمد الوملى الانصاري رحمهم الله تعالى المطبوع بمصر صفحة ٢٢٨*

باب الوقف

هو لغة الحبس و شرعا حبس مال يمكن الانتفاع به مع بقاء عيده بقطع التصرف في رقبته على مصرف مباح و الاصل فيه خبر مسلم اذا مات ين آدم انقطع عمله الا من ثلاث صدقة جارية او علم ينتفع به أو ولد صالح يدعو له و الصدقة الجارية محمولة عند العلماء على الوقف *

عين جاز ان ينتفع بها مع البقا) فلا يصم وقف آلات اللهو و الكلب المعلم والطعام و الرياحين المشموصة المحصودة والا وقف الدراهم و الدنانيز و يصم

Vol. VII, No. 6.] The Waqf of Moveables.

وقف عقار و منظول و شائع و مقسوم و المصائد و العيون و الابار و الاشجار للثمار و البهائم للبن و الصوف و الوبر و البيض و الانزاء »

القدوري صفحة عرم اكتاب الوقف « XLIX

و يصبح وقف العقار و لا يجوز وقف ما ينقل و يحول الا اذا كان فيد تعامل الناس و قال ابو يوسف رح اذا وقف ضيعة ببقرها و اكرتها و هم عبيدة جاز و قال محمد رح يجوز حبس الكراع و السلاح ...

الجوهرة النيرة الجزء صفحة 19

قال الخجندي رح لا يجوز وقف المنقول الا ان يكون تبعا لغيرة وهو ان يقف ارضا فيها اثوار و عبيد لمصالحها فيكونون وقفا معها نبعا او جرت العادة بوقفه كالمر لحقر القبور او الجنازة و تياب الجنازة .

ولو وقف الاشجار الفائمة لا يجوز قياسا و يجوز استحسانا [و ينتفع بثمارها دون اغصانها الا فيما يمقاد قطعه ليبني به كشجر الخلاف وهو الضرح] *

قال في الواقعات اذا وقف دورا على إعل قوية للأنزار على بقوهم لا يصيح لان وقف المنقول لا يصيح الا فيما فيه تعارف ولا تعارف في هذا *

و عذه الشافعي رح يجوز *

قولة و قال محمد رح يجوز هبس الكراع و السلاح في سبيل الله - الكراع هو الخيل و ابو يوسف رح معه على ما قالوا وهو استحسان عندة قال محمد رح ويجوز وقف ما فيه تعامل من المنقولات كالفاس و المو و القدوم و المنشار و الجنازة و ثيابها و القدور و المصاحف و الكتب *

و عند ابي يوسف رح لا يجوز فاكثر فقهاء الامصار على قول محمد و اذا صع الوقف لم يجز بيعه ولا تمليكه الا أن يكون مشاعاً عند أبي يوسف رح [أما أمتناع البيع و التمليك فلانه قد زال ملكه عنه] *

فذاوى سراجية كتاب الوقف باب وقف المنقول صفحة ١٠١٠ LI. وقف المنقول سفحة ١٠١٠ وقف المنقول لا يصم الا تبعا او الا اذا كان منعارفا *

رجل جعل فرسة جديدا في سبيل الله تعالى جاز باعتبار العرف و كذا اذا وقف ملاحا او كراما في سبيل الله تعالى .

او وقف الكتاب أو المصلحف أو وقف ضيعة مع السير و الآت الخرائة يجوز في الديناج الكعبة أذا صار خلقا لا يجوز اخذه لكن يبيعه السلطان و يستعين به فلي أمر الكعبة] ه

شرح الوقاية - المطبوع بكلكته - كتاب الوقف - ١٣٢٠ لقادم و المرو القدوم و عن محمد و على وقف منقول فيد تعامل كالفاس و المرو القدوم و المنشار و الجنسارة و ثبابها و القدر و المرجل و المصحف و عليه اكثر المنظاء الامصار»

ذخيرة العقبي LIII.

وقال محمد رح ما تعارف الناس وقفه من المنقول فانه يجوز استحسانا كالاشياء المذكورة في المقن و ما لم يتعارف الناس رقفه لا يجوز كوقف الثياب و العيوان وغهرهما من الامتعة وقال الشائعي و احمد و مالك رح ال وق ف المفقول يصم مقصودا اذا كان المنقول شيئا يمكن الانتفاع بد مع بقاء عينه اي شي كان و اجمعوا أنه لا بصبح وقف الدراهم و الدنانير- وجه قول الشائعي رح القياس على العقار والخيل والجامع امكان الانتفاع مع بقاء العين و نحن نقول هذا القياس ضعيف لانه قياس ما يبقى على ما لا يبقى كذا في البيانية و قد فهم من المعرجية ان ما لا يجوز وقفه من الحجرين هو نفس الدراهم و الدنانير المضروبين و اما الحلي فينجوز وقفة عند احمد و الشافعي وح لما أن حقصة رض بنت عمر رض زوجة النبي صلى الله عليه وسلم ابقاعت حلياً بعشرين الفا نحيسته على نساء ال الخطاب فكانت لاتخرج زكوته وعن احمد رح لا يصم وقفها و انكر الحديث وقيل اذا صححنا اجارة الدراهم و الدنائير بعجوز وقفها و ليس بشيئ انتهى كالم المراية و قال في الهزازية اذا وقف الدواهم او الدنانير او الطعام [او ما يكال] يجوز [و يدنع النقد و ثمن غير النقد كالمكيل و الموزون بعد البيع مضاربة او بضاعة و يصرف الربم الحاصل الي ما وقف عليد] وقال في الخانية وعن زفورح وجل وقف الدواهم [او الطعام او ما يكال او ما يوزن قال] يجوز [قيل له و كيف يكون قال تدنع الدراهم مضاربة ثم تدنع بقضلها في الوجه الذي وقف عليه و ما يكال ويوزن يباع ويدنع ثمنه بضاعة او مضاربة انتهى] و نعن نقول وجه اللوديق بين ما ذكر في هذين المعتبرين من جواز وقف النقود و الطعام و بين ما ذكر في شروح الهداية من عدم جوازة أن الشراح لايتصورون امكان الانتفاع بها مع بقاء اصلها و قائل ما في هذين الكلابين والصورة كما ترى و الحق في الجواب الله التوفيق هذا ليس بواجب لال قائل كل Vol. VII, No. 6.] The Waqi of Moveables.

من الكامين طائقتان هتضائفتان كما ترى والتوقيق إنما يجب بين مجلمات قوم بوريقان في المداهب و الاقوال كما لايخفى فليتأمل - [قال - وقف منقول فيه تمامات - إلى على المداهب و الاقوال كما لايخفى فليتأمل الوقف فيد كما في هذه الأشهاء يوديد هذا الاستخراج قول صاحب الهداية وقد وجد التمامل في هذه الاشياء اى في وقف هذه الاشياء و الحاصل ان جواز وقف المنقول عند من جوزة مبني على كرى وقف ذلك متعاوفا بين الناس حتى قبل ان وقف رجل بقوق على واط على ان حال على حرى الناس بعوز ماء السقاية على المنابع المنابع على الناس المنابع ال

فناوي عيرية الجزء الالو صفحة IIV. ا١٣١

سلال - في رجل وقف منقولا فيد تعامل على اولادة العنفار ثم من بعدهم الحجة بر غير منقطعة ثم اقام وصيا على اولادة المدكورين و امرة بتعهد الموقوف و حفظه الى ايناس الرشد في احدهم ثم صات الواقف و قام الوصي بما فوض الدة ثم صات محبلاً و ضاع الموقوف و اولس الرشد في احدهم فهل يضمن بموتة محبلاً و يوخذ ضائلة من تركله ام لا [وهل اذا اختلف مع ورثته الوصي فادعى انه مات مجهلاً و ادءوا انه بين ولم يمت من تجهيل يقبل قوله ام قولهم] *

اجاب. [اعام انهم صرحوا بان ولاية الوقف الى وصي الواقف اذا نصبة عند موته وصيا ولم تذكر من امر الوقف شيئا و لو جعل ولاية وقفه لرجل ثم جعل كمر وصية يكون شربكا للمتولي في امر الوقف الا ان يقول وقفت ارضى على كذا و كذا و جعلت ولايتها لفلان و جعلت فلانا وصيا عي تركاتي و جهيع اموري فحيناذ ينفرد كل منهما بها فوض اليه كذا في الاسعاني فاذا علمت ذلك] علمت ان هذا الوصي مقول على الوقف المذكور و قد نصوا على ان المقولي اذا صلت مجهلا لفلات الوقف لا يضمن و اذا مات مجهلا لفلات البدل ضمانه الدنائير الموقونة [وهوينادي في مسئلتنا بالضمان فنقول انه ضامن بالموت عن تجهيل للمنقول الموقون] •

تنقيم الحامدية . I.V

(سَكُلُ) في امراة وقفت مبلغا معلوما من الدراهم على ولدي ينتها ... هل يكون الوقف البزيور جائزا ه

﴿الجواب) نعم وافقى بذلك مفثى المولة العلية المرجوم على انتهي

416 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [June, 1911.

و في الخانية من وقف المنقول عن زفورجل وقف الدراهم او الطعام او مايكال او يوزن قال يجوز ... و مثلة في الدرر عن الخلاصة عن الانصاري وكان من المحاب زفرة *

فتاري قنية صفحة ١٩٩ LVI.

وقف مائة وخمسين ديدارا على مرضى-الذهب الى انسان مضاربة ليستغلها و يصرف الويم اليهم - محيط - وقف الدراهم و المكيل المورون كدلك *

فتارى بزازيه خطيه صفحة ٣١٩ . LVII. وقف المنقول

اذا وقف الدراهم و الدنانيو او الطعام او ما يكال او يوزن يجوز و يدفع النقد و تمن غير النقد كالمكيل و الموزون بعد البيع مضاربة او بضاعة و يصرف الربيم الحاصل الى ما وقف عليه *

واقعار المفتين صفحة عرب LVIII. المحتلف

و عن زفر رحمة الله اذا وقف الدراهم او الطعام او ما يكال او ما يوزن يجوز *

حاشية واقعات المفتين نمبر آ

في فتاوى الناطفي عن محمد رح عن عبد الله الانصاري من اصحاب زفر انه يجوز وقف الدراهم و الطعام و المكيل و الموزون *

[الفتاوى المهدية - الجزء الثاني صفحة عمم]

سدل - من طرف وكيل المالية بما مصمونة إن شخصا من إهالي مكة المكرمة يدعى الشيخ احمد جلبي له منزل وقف اهلي نظارته و صار شراؤة اللميري لاجل الحاقة بسواى حرم جنتمكان المرحوم افندينا الكبير و لكونه وقفا اعليا صار توقيف صوف الثمن لاجل استبداله و الان تقدم الانهاء من وكيل صاحب المنزل المذكور ينهى أن باقي محلك الوقف لازم لها عمارة ضرورية اكثر من مبلغ اربعة آلاف قرش ثمن المنزل المذكور و يريد صوف الثمن لاجل صوفة في عمارة الأماكن المذكورة لكون الاصول احياء الوقف من بعضة *

Vol. VII, No. 6.] The Waqf of Moveables.
[N.S.]

اجاب - اذا استبدل عقار الوقف استبدالا صحيحا شرعياً أو استولي عليه شخص وضمن المستولي القيمة لا يصرف الثمن و لا قيمة العقار في العمارة بل يشترى عقار آخر فيكون وقفا بدل الاول و أما ثمن الانقاض اذا بيعت لتعذر عودها أو خوف علاكها فيصرف في العمارة و يكون لناظر الوقف أخذ ثمنها وصرفه في عمارة باقى الوقف حيند و في تنقيع الحامدية من اوائل الوقف بعد كلام عن فتاوى اللطفي فيقتضاه جواز صوف البدل في عمارة الوقف فتأمل و الاستبدال و البيع واحد من حيث المال و الله اعلم أقول و كذا أجاب الشيخ اسمعيل في فتاواة بانه يعمر من مال الاستبدال و لا يستدين حيث كان في الوقف مال لعدم الضرورة اه - و ما ذكرة في فتاوى اللطفي هو قوله و قد تصرف أي دراهم البدل في عمارة الوقف الضرورية باذن القاضي فانه يملك ذلك و يستوفي من غلة الوقف بعد العمارة الوقف الضرورية باذن القاضي فانه يملك ذلك و يستوفي من غلة الوقف بعد العمارة ليشتوي بها ما يكون وقفا كالاول و لا تكون ملكا للموقوف

صفحة إعاده LX. مطلب في صحة وقف المشام و لو قابلا للقسمة

سئل - من حادثة من بيت مال مصر مضبونها ان امرأة وقفت نصف مغزلها بمصر على جهة و النصف الآخر اعطته لزوجها الآن فما الحكم في ذلك * الجاب - الافادة عن ذاك ان وقف المشاع فيه اختلاف و للقاضي الحكم بصحته اعتمادا على قول الإمام الثاني ابي يوسف فاذا ثبت ايقاف المرأة المذكورة لنصف المغزل مستوفيا شرائطه يكون للقاضي الحكم بصحة الوقف و لزومة *

LXI. орр азве

سدل - في رجل وقف نصف حمام مشاعا ليس قابلا للقسمة على نفسه مدة حياته ثم على دريته *

اجاب - اختلف في صحة وقف المشاع و لوحكم بصحته نفذ اذ فيه قولان مصححان و هذا الخلاف فيما يحتمل القسمة اما مالا يحتملها كما هذا فهو جائز الفاقا الا في المسجد و المقبرة كما هو مصوح به في كتب المذهب *

LXII. and amen

سئل ، فهل حيث كأن الواقف ناهيا عن الاستبدال لايكون الاستبدال جاريا مجرى الصحة خصوصا و لا مصلحة في هذا الاستبدال *

اجاب . مشمولا ايضا باسم و ختم كل من حضرة الديم خليل الرشيدي أمين القتوى و الشيع محمد المنصوري الحنفي كلاهما بما أهم قضية استبدال الرقف بدون شرط من الواقف لذلك فيها اختلاف العلماء قديما و الذي عليه عمل القضاة بالديار المصرية عدم الاستبدال أصلا بدون أمر مولانا السلطان أيد بالنصر عملا بما اشتهر من منعهم من ذلك و القضاء يتخصص بالزمان و المكان و الحادثة قلا ينفذ حكم القضي فيما هو ممنوع عنه قلا يملك القاضي استبدال الوقف المذكور بدون أمر من له ولاية ذلك سيما مع مدم المصلحة ونهي الواقف عن استبداله فان شرط الواقف كنص الشارع فلا تسوغ مطالفة شرطه بدون وجه شرعى [و الله تعالى اعلم] .

صفحة وجو LXIII.

سلل . من الروزنامة بما مضونة أن أولاد الشيخ على خليفة أحد العلماء و زوجته و معتقته السبراء مقيد باسبائهم مرتبات و حصة التزام و يران وقف ذلك وصدر الامر من ولي الامر باجراء ذلك و في الاولاد قصر فببقاضي منطوق الامر هل هذاى محظور شرعي في ايقاف حصص الخبسة اشخاص البلغ أولاد الشيخ *

اجاب - ايقاف اراضى الالتزامات و المرتبات التي من بيت المال المقيدة باسهاء اربابها من قبيل الأرصاد فتسوغ باءر ولي الأمر على مصارفة للمصلحة فاذا أذن ولي الامر للمقيد باسمه و هو بالغ بايقاف ذلك على الوجه المذكور محسبها يصدر به الأذن يجرى الايقاني والارصاد على مقتضاة والله تعالى اعلم،

LXIV. yas ande

سلل - من طوف أمين بيت البال بما مضمونه ان محمدا صادقا توفى من بيت المال و وجد في تركته سند فيه نحاس وغيرة و بانه وقف على جهة كذا و انه وقف ذلك فهل يصلم بيع ذلك أو يكون وقفا اذا ثبت ما ذكر *

اجاب وقد وقع إختلاف في صحة وقف البنقول والصحيم الذي عليه

Vol. VII, No. 6.] The Waqi of Moveables.

اكثر المشايع صحة وقف ماجرى بوقفه التعامل و العامة فكل ماجرى التعامل بوقفه من الأشياء المذكورة فالصحيم صحة وقفه و ما لا فلا و الله تعالى اعلم .

LXV. vom assino

وقد سئل شيخنا العلامة عن واقف شرط في وقفه النقض و الابرام ثم نوزع في هذا الشرط وأراد المنازع ابطال الوقف به قائلا ان النقض هو الابطال وهو مبطل للوقف فهل يسوغ بعد ذلك الآخر ابطاله أو الافقاء بالابطال أم لا ...

قاجاب - الوقف المذكور صحيح معبول به و ان لم يحكم الحاكم بصحته و اما شرط الواقف لنفسه نقضه و إبطاله فهو شرط فير صحيح على ما هو المختار للفتوى و ما نقل عن أوقاف هلال و الخصاف من ان الوقف يبطل بهذا الشرط خلاف المختار للفتوى صوح بذلك العلامة قاسم بن قطلو بغا و الشيخ الطوسي في فتاويهما و نقله الطوسوسي عن التتارخانية و الفتاوى الكبرى ثم بعد ما حكم الحاكم بالصحة لايجوز الافتاء بالابطال و لا يعبل بذلك الفتوى والله تعالى أعلم انتهى و قد صوح العلماء بأنه يفتى بكل ما هو أنفع للوقف مما اختلف فيه العلماء و العمل جار على صحة الاوقاف المشروط فيها ذلك اذ كثيرا ما يوجد مثل هذا الشرط في الاوقاف مع اقرار تلك الاوقاف على صحة وقفها ما يوجد مثل هذا الشرط في الاوقاف و عدم الالتفات لهذا الشرط و حيناذ فالذي ينبغي و العمل بموجب هذا الايقاف و عدم الالتفات لهذا الشرط و حيناذ فالذي ينبغي العمل بموجب هذا الايقاف و عدم الالتفات لهذا الشرط و حيناذ فالذي ينبغي التعويل عليه القول بصحة الوقف »

مفعة عود LXVI.

سلل - من قاضي سيوط في عام محرم سنة ١٢٩١ بما نصه اما بعد فقد وقعت لنا حادثة محصلها ان رجالا يملك طاحونة و معمل زجاج أرضا و بناء و حصصا في نخل مزروع في أرض خواجية على وجه القواروقف ما ذكر و هو يملكه وقفا مذجرا من سنة علام م مسجد انشا بناء «

اجاب - نعم الوقف المذكور على هذا الوجد صحيع على ما عليد العمل مع جريان التعامل في وقف البناء و الغراس الموضوعين بحق القرار بدون الأرض و فذا حيث لا مانع *

LXVII. A.a ässin

اجاب - اذا تخربت اماكن الوقف و احتاجت للعمارة الضرورية لا يسوغ للناظر أن يصوف شياً من ربعه لمستحقيه قبل الصرف على عمارته المذكورة و ان لم يشوط الواقف أن يبدأ من ربعه بعمارته اذ هي مقدمة على مستحقي ربعه بدون شرط فمع شرط النقديم أولى بل عند الشرط المذكور يجب على الناظر امساك ما تحتاج اليه العمارة في المستقبل و ان كان الآن لا يحتاج الموقوف الى العمارة على القول المختار للفقيه ابى الليث ففي تنقيع الحامدية عن الإشجاد ان الواقف اذا شرط نقديم العمارة نم الفاضل عنها للمستحقين كما هو الواقع في أوقافي القاهرة فانه يجب على الناظر امساك قدر ما تحتاج اليه العمارة في المستقبل *

LXVIII. Arr asses

[سئل - في أرض معلوكة استأجرتها امرأة من مالكها مسانهة كل سنة المجرة معلوصة اجارة صحيحة وقبضتها و اذنها مالك الارض بالبناء و الغرس و العمارة و التجديد للمأذون لها على ان بابنته أوغرسته أو جددته يكون لها ملكا طلقا بحق البقاء و القوار و قبلت منه ذلك ثم انشأت المأذون لها حال بقاء الاذن بناء وغرست غواسا و جددت عمارة ثم أوادت وقف البناء و الغراس و العرف جار بوقف البناء و الغراس على هذا الوجه و جرى به التعامل فهل يجوز لها ذلك و يكون وقفا شرعيا اذا صدر مستوفيا شرائطه المعتبرة شرعا أفيدوا الجواب] •

راجاب - وقف البناء والغراس دون الأرض في صحته اختلاف و الذي عليه العمل صحته حيث جرى به التعامل و العرف *

الفتاوى المهدية - الجزء الثالث - صفحة ١٩٣٨ الكالك المهدية المحافظة مورخة ١٢٧٩ جمادى الأولى سنة ١٢٧٩ مضمونها طلب افادة الحكم الشرعي في بيع مبلغ كان في جهة بيت المال باسم المرأة تسمى نسوخ الحبشية صاتت وكانت المصلحة المذكورة دفعته للقومبانية المجيدية واثبت رجل وراثته لتلك المرأة بعد موتها باعلام شرعي فادعى شخص نصراني شراء ذلك من الوارث المذكور ويطلب هذا المبلغ وفائضه •

اجاب - ما صار اجراؤا في هذه القضية اولا و آخرا لم يكن على مقتضى

Vol. VII, No. 6.] The Waqt of Moveables.

الشرع وبيع البعلغ الكائن بالقومبانية وبيت المال باسم نسوخ الحبشية سواء كان دينا او عينا لا يصح من وارتها و الحال هذه ولو فرض انه مملوك لها و انه انتقل لوارثها بطويق الميراث فهو بيع فاسد فسبيله الفسح ورد بدله الى المشتري حيث كان الواقع فيه بيما و هذا ما يقتضيه الشرع و يكون لمستحق الببلغ الكائن بالقومهانية و بيت المال قبضه من جهته »

الاشبالا و النظائر صفحة ٥٨ و ٥٩ و ١٦ و ٦٥ و ١٦ و ١٥ و ١٨ و ١٥ و ١٨ و ١٥ و ١٤ و ١٥ و ١٤ و ١٥ و ١٤ و ١٥ و ١٤ و ٥ و اعلم ان اعتبار العادة و العرف ترجع اليد في الفقد مسائل كثيرة حتى جملوا ذلك اصلا ...

و تتعلق بهذه القاعدة مباحث - الاوله بماذا تثبت العادة - وفي ذلك فروع - الاول العادة الله و محمد رح الاول العادة في باب الحيض - اختلف فيها فعند ابي حنيفة و محمد رح لا تثبت الا بمرتين - و عند ابي يوسف رح تثبت بمرة واحدة - قالوا و عليه الفقوى - الثاني تعليم الكلب الصائد بقرك اكله للصيد بان يصير التوك عادة له - و ذلك بقركه الاكل ثلث موات *

[فصل في تمارض العرف مع الشرع - فاذا تعارضا قدم عرف الاستعمال خصوصا في الايمان *

قال في البزازية معزيا الى الاصام البخاري الذي ختم به الفقه الحكم العام لا يثبت بالعرف الخاص - وقيل يثبت انتهى] *

الحموي - البطبوع ببطبع نولكشور بلكنة صفعة ...

[قولة الحكم العام لا يثبت بالعرف الخاص يفهم مذة أن الحكم الخاص يثبت بالعرف الخاص و فية] *

الدر المختار و ردالمحتار - الجزء الرابع صفحة 14 LXXI. بيع المبرا التي يكتبها الديوان على العمال لا يصم بخلاف بيع حظوظ الأئمة لان مال الوقف قائم ثمة ولا كذلك هنا - أشباع وقنية - و معناء انه يجوز للمستحق بيع خبزة قبل قبضة من المشرف .

صفحة ١١ و ٣٩ و ١٥٥ و ٢٥٧

قولة بخلاف بيع حظوظ الائمة -[بالحاء المهملة و الظاء المشالة] جمع حظ بمعني النصيب المرتب له من الوقف اي فانه يجوز بيعه و هذا مخالف لما

في الصيرفية، فإن حولفها سنل عن بنع الحظ فاجاب لا يجوز عن حاشية الشهاء قلب وعبارة الصير فية حكفه سنل عن بعج الحظ قال لا يجوز فانه لا يخلوه أما إن باع ما فيد أو عين الحظ لا وجه للأول لانه بعج أما ليس عنده ولا وجه للأول لانه بعج أما ليس عنده ولا وجه للأفي لان هذا القدر من الكافد ليس متقوماً يخلف البرادة لان هذه الكافدة متقومة *

آ عده ابي يوسف تجب قيمته يوم البيع و عدد محمد يوم الكساد وهو آخر ما تعامل الله الله وهو آخر ما تعامل الفاس بها بو في الدهيرة الفدوي على قول ابي يوسف و في المحيط و التنابة و الحقائق و يقول محمد يفتى رفقا بالناس]*

بطل بيع مال فير متقوم كخمر و خنزير فان المتقوم هو المال العليم الانتقاع به شرعا *

[قوله كفقود - فاذا اشقرى بهذا الدرهم له دفع درهم غيرة و عدم قدين اللقد ليس على اطلاقه بل ذلك في المعارضات وفي العقد الفاسد على احدى الوالمانات والهبة وفي الدذر و الاصانات والهبة والمحدة والمشاربة *]

[درالمختار صفحة ٢٧٢ و ٢٨١ و ٢٩٣] . LXXII.

لأن العادة اذ ذاك كذاك وقد تبدلت فتبدل الحكم LXXIII. ... ان تغير العادة يستلزم تغير النص حتى لوكان صلى الله عليه وسلم حيا نص عليه ...

ان النص معلول بالعرف فيكون المعتبر هو العرف في اي زعن كان ولا يخفى ان هذه الاحكام تبني على العرف فيمتبر في كل اقليم و في كل عصر عرف اهله به

الهزالمطفار و ردالمطار الجزء الرابع صفحة ، عهم و LXXIV. و ددالمطار الجزء الرابع صفحة ، عهم و ددالمطار المحالم و دم المحالم ال

دفع ماله مضاربة لوجل جاهل جاز اخذ ربعه مالم يعلم إنه اكتسب

قولة المسلم حزاما الن النوسي المسئلة ما في المقارعاتية حيث قال رجل المسئلة المعالمة الما الله وقع تلك.

النبيهم الى اليائع او لا ثم اشترى مله بها او اشترى قبل الدفع بها و دفعها و اشترى قبل الدفع بها و دفعها و اشترى مطلقا و دفع قلك الدراهم او اشترى مطلقا و دفع قلك الدراهم الم البولان المواهم المن يقسدن الأفي المرجة الاول و اليه ذهب المقيد ابو الليت لكن هذا خلاق طاهر الرواية فانه نص في الجامع الصغير المؤتف الما فاشترى بها جارية و باعها بالفين تصدق بالربع و قال المحترب في الوجه الحل و الثاني لا يطبب و في الألاث الاخيرة يطبب و قال المحترب في الكل في الكل في الفتوى الآن على قول الكوخي دفعا للحرب في الكل في الكل في الكل في دفعا للحرب في النامي اله وفي الولوالجية و كالي يحضهم على قول الكرخي دفعا للحرب في العرب على قول الكرخي دفعا للحرب في العرب على قول الكرخي دفعا للحرب في العرب على قول الكرخي دفعا

ردالمحتار الجزء الرابع صفحة هم المحتار الجزء الربع عليك بما في الخالية الن قاضي خان من اصحاب الترجيع .

و هذا يختلف باغتلاف الزمّان و المكان كما هو مشاهد LXXVI.

[فتدبر اه التهي و اجبب ايضا بان التقييد مستفاد من تعليلة اه] - اقول وحيث كانت العلة الخوف وهو ايضا منتف بسفينة التجار في زمالنا المعروفة بالبابور فان الغالب فيها السلامة لان التجار الآن لا تطمئن قلويهم في ارسال الموالهم الا بها بحرا و اذا انتفت العلة انتفي المعاول على إنا قدمنا و باتي ان العبرة في حفظ الوديعة العرف وحيث كان العرف كذلك فينبغي ان يقال لافرق بين السفر بها برا او بحوا في الهابور "

الدرالمختار - الجزء الثالث صفحة ٢٠٥٩ - ردالمحتار - LXXVII. الجزء الثالث صفحه ٢٠٥٩ و ٣٨٧ الى ٢٧٧٠

[و اطلق الشافعي اخذ خلاف الجذمن للمجانسة في المالية قال في المجتبى وهو اوسع فيعمل به عدد الضرورة »]

مقولة واطلق الشافعي الذ خلاف الجنس ، اى من النقولا او العروض الن النقود يجوز الخذها عددنا على ماقررناء انفا قال القهستاني وفيه ايماء الى ان أبه ان ياخذ من خلاف جنسة عند المجانسة في الهالية و هذا اوسع فيجوز الأبنان بعدر في العلاية عند المعرورة كما في الااهدى *

ردالمَحتّار - الجزء الاول صفحة ٧٧ المطبوع بالقسطنطنية

[فقد ذكر في حيض البحر - اقوالا ضعيفة ثم قال و فى المعراج عن فخر الاثبة لو افتي مفت بشئ من هذه الاقوال في مواضع الضرورة طلبا للتبسير كان حسنا م]

ردالمحتار - الجزء الثالث صفحة . ١ ه

[قوله خلافاً لمالك . فان عندة تعتد زوجة المفقود عدة الوفاة بعد مضي اربع سنين وهو صدهب الشافعي القديم و اما الميراث فمذهبها كمدهبنا في التقدير بقسعين سنة او الرجوع الى رأى الحاكم و عدد احمد ان كان يغلب على حاله الهلاك كمن فقد بين الصفين أو في مركب قد انكسر او خرج لحاجة قريبة فلم يرجع ولم يعلم خبرة فهذا بعد اربع سنين يقسم ماله و تعتد زوجته بخلاف ما اذا لم يغلب عليه الهلاك كالمسافر لتجارة او لسياحة فاذه يفوني للحاكم في رواية عنه وفي اخرى يقدر بتسمين من مولدة كما في شرح ابن الشحنة لكنه اعترف على الناظم بانه لا حاجة للحنفي الى ذلك أي لان ذلك خلاف مذهبنا فحذفه اولى و قال في الدر المنتقى ليس باولى لقول القهستاني لوافتي به في موضع الضرورة لا باس به على ما اظن اه قلت و نظير هذه المسللة عدة مهدة الطهر التي بلغت برؤية الدم ثلاثة ايام ثم امتد طهرها فانها تبقى في العدة الى ان التي بلغت برؤية الدم ثلاثة ايام ثم امتد طهرها فانها تبقى في العدة الى ان البزازية الفتوى في زماننا على قول مالك و قال الزاهدي كان بعض اصحابنا يفتون به للفرورة *

حاصلة إن هذا التعليل المار عن الهداية مبني على . IXXXVIII ان الاصل في الاشياء الاباحة وهو راى المعتزلة ... إن نسبة الاباحة الى المعتزلة مخالف لما في كتب الاصول ففي تحرير ابن الهمام المختاز الاباحة عند جمهور الحنفية والشافعية إه وفي شوح إصول البزدوي للعلامة الاكمل قال اكثر اصحابنا واكثر إصحاب الشافعي إن الاشياء التي يجوز إن يود الشرع بابا حقها و حرمتها قبل و رودة على الاباحة وهي الاصل فيها حتى ابيم لمن لم يبلغه الشرع إن يا كل صاشاء و اليه شار محمد في الاكراة حيث قال اكل الميتة وشرب الخمر لم يحرما الا باللهي فجعل الاباحة اصلا و الحرمة بمارض ألفهي *

Vol. VII, No. 6.] The Waqf of Moveables. [N.S.]

م نور الانوار شرح المنار المطبوع بعطبع الهوسفي بلكنوم . IIXXIX. مفعة ٢٢١

و الشرط اجتماع الكل و خلاف الواحد مانع كخلاف الأكثر يعني في حين انعقاد الاجماع لو خالف واحد كان خلافة معتبرا ولا يذعقد الاجماع لان لفظ الامة في قوله عم لا تجتبع امتي على الضلالة يتناول الكل فيحتمل ان يكون الصواب مع المخالف *

قال اجتماع الكل اى جميع المجتهدين وقيل اقل ما ينعقد به ثلاثة واليه مال السرخسي لانه اقل الجماعة وقيل اثنان لانه اقل الجمع وقيل ان لم يبق من المجتهدين الا واحد يكون قوله اجماعا لانه عند الانقراد يصدق عليه لفظ الامة كما قال الله تعالى ان ابواهيم كان امة قانتاً *

صفحة س

و الذوع الثاني الثلثة فيما كان جمعا صيغة و معنى كرجال و نساء منكرا مما لم يدخلد لام الجنس و يلحق به ما كان معنى فقط كقوم و روط و انها ينتهي تخصيص هولاء كلها الى الثلثة لان ادنى الجمع الثلثة باجماع اهل اللغة فلو لم ببق تحته ثلثة افراد لفات اللفظ من مقصودة و قال بعض اصحاب الشافعي و مالك ان اقل الجمع اثنان فينتهي التخصيص اليه تمسكا بقوله عليه السلام الاثنان فما فوقهما جماعة فاجاب عنه المواديث و الوصايا *

قال على المواريث اى لا على بيان اللغة لانه عليه السلام بعث لبيان اللغة ،

صفحة سعرم

الاستحسان يكون بالأثر والأجماع و الضرورة و القياس الخفي يعني ان القياس الجلي يقتضي شيئا و الأثر و الأجماع و الضرورة و القياس الخفي يقتضي ما يفهادة فيقرك العمل بالقياس ويصار الى الاستحسان *

صفحة بس

و الحجة في هذا الباب - اى ان تبدل الملك يرجب تبدل المين حكما ان رسول الله صلى الله و سلم دخل على بريرة يوما فقدمت اليه تبرا وكان القدر يغلي من اللحم فقال عليه السلام الا تجعلين لنا نصيبا من اللحم فقالت

يارسول الله انه لحم تصدق به على فقال عليه السلام لك صدقة و لنا هدية يعني اذا اخذته من المالك كان صدقة عليك و اذا اعطيته ايانا تصدر هدية لنا فعلم ان تبدل الملك يوجب تبدلا في العين و على هذا يخرج كثير من المسائل ه

شرح مجمع الحقائق صفحة ٢١٣ الركن الثالث

[فلو لم يوجد في عصر الا مجتهد واحد ففيه قولان - احدهما يكون قوله جماعا لانه عند الا فواد يصدق عليه لفظ الامة كما قال الله تعالى - ان ابراهيم كان امة قاندا - و على اشتراط العدد على اشتراط العدد قيل - اقل ما ينعقد الاجماع ... باذنين ... لان الاجتماع لا يتحقق بدون ذلك - و على الابتهة السرخسي الثلاثة - لانه اقل الجماعة »]

ورقة فتوى شرهية ثمنها سنة قروش .LXXX فضيلتلو افادم مفتي الديار المحرية .

ما قولكم دام فضلكم في رجل هندي حنفي الندهب وقف قواطيس و صكوكا مالية من التي تعرف عند الافرنج بالرائت و او وقف اسهما في قومبانيات تجارية مما تعورف في زماننا هذا في بعض البلاد فيل وقف هذا مستعيم جائز في الهند ازا جرى به التعامل في البلاد الرومية مثلا و هل يجوز وقف الغاس و القدوم في زماننا هذا [افيدونا ولكم الاجرافندم من السائل] *

حسن بک فهمی سکرتیر دولة الغازی مختار باشا

الحبد لله وحدة و الصارة و السلام على من لا نبي بعدة و على آلف و محية نص العلياء على ان محل الوقف المال المتقوم بشرط ان يكون عقارا او منقولا فيه تعامل فالصكوك المالية المدكورة ان كانت مالا متقوما و قد جرى المرق بوقفها في بلد الواقف كان وقفها جائزا على مدهب الأمام محمد رحبه الله تعالى كوقف الدراهم والدنانير التي تعورف وقفها و كذا الفاس و القدوم متى تعورف وقفها قصدا على مذهب الإمام المشار اليه و قد اختارة اكثر فقهاه الإمصار كبا في الهداية و هو الصحيح كما في الاسعاف و هو قول اكثر المشايع كما في الظهيرية كذا في رد المحتار و صرح في شرح الدربان

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ماية الفاتوى و اما وقف المنقول تبعا للعقار فهو جائز بلا خلاف بين ابن بوسف و محدد وهبهما الله تعالى - وفي رد المحتار ايضا بعد كلم ما نصه و على هذا فالطاهر اعتبار العرف في الموضع او المزواد الذي اشتهر فيه دون غيرة فوقف الدراهم متعارى في بلاد الروم دون بلاديا و وقف الفاس و القدوم كان متعارفًا في زمن المتقدمين ولم نسبع به في زماننا فالظاهر اله الديمي الآن ولئن وجدنا نادرا لا يعتبر لما علمت من أن التعامل هو الاكثر استعمالا فتامل اثتهى - فالمدار على التعارف و عدمه . و اها السهام البذكورة فرقفها من قبيل وقف المشاع فان كانت سهاما في عقار فوقفها جائز على صدهب ابي يوسف رح و محمد رح ان لم نكن قابلة للقسمة و ان كانت قابلة لها فجوار وقفها على مذهب ابي يوسف رح لاعلى مذهب محيد رح و صحح كل منها بلفظ الفتوى -و ان كانت سهاما في مذفول فوقفها جائل ان لم تكن قابلة للقسمة و قد جرى التعارف بوقفها ففي حواشي العلاصة ابن عابدين على البحر ما نصد. قواد وقال محمد رج يجوزوقف ما فيه تعامل من المنقولات النع - و اذا عرفت ان وقف المنقول الما هو على مذهب الامام معمد رحمة الله تعالى راعيت الشروط اللي اشترطها في الوقف فيها ايضا ككونه مقسوما غيو مشاع فيما يحقمل القسمة متسلما الى متول و إن سقط التابيد انتهى - ثم اعلم إن كلام الفقهاء هذا فيه ميل إلى اعتبار العرف الخاص وهي طريقة في المذهب وهو وجية فان الفاظ الو قفين قبنى على عرفهم [عدا ما تيسرو ظهرلي في جواب هذا السؤال و الله تعالى اعلم بحقيقة الحال .]

تحویرا فی و محرم شده ۱۳۲۹ نمرة ۱۹۷ فقاوی

ما قولكم في رجل هندي حنفي المذهب وقف قراطيس . IXXXI. و صكوكا مالية من التي تعرف عند الافرنج بالرانت و وقف اسهما في ومبانيات تجارية مما تعورف في زماننا هذا في بعض البلاد فهل وقف هذا صحيح جائز في الهاد اذا جرى به التعامل في البلاد الرومية مثلا و هل يجوز وقف الفاس و القدوم في زماننا هذا افيدونا و لكم الاجر النخم م

الحديد لله وحدة والسلام على من لا نبي بعدة وعلى اله و سعدة

و تابعية و حريد و بعد قاني قد اطلعت على السؤال المذكور اعالا وحيث أن كلا من الصكوى المالية و الاسهم التجارية المذكورة و الفاس و القدوم و ما . شاكل ذلك جميعة في المنقولات وقد صرحوا بان وقف كلُّ صَقول ان كان تبعا للمقار فهو جائز بلا خلاف بين ابي يرسف و محمد وانكان وقفه مستقلا مقصودا فير تابع للعقار فمنعه ابو يوسف رح و قال محمد رح بجواز وقف ما جرى فيه ولتعامل من المنقولات و اختارة اكثر فقهاء الامصار كما في الهداية و هو الصحيم كما في الاسعاف و هو قول اكثر المشايخ كما في الظهيرية على انه قد نقل في المجتبى من السير جواز وقف المنقول مطلقا مند محمد رج و اذا جري فيد التعامل عدد ابي يوسف و على ذلك فهتى كان التعامل قد جرى بوقف تلك القراطيس و الاسهم جاز وقفها خصوصا و انها بمنزلة النقود و الدراهم و الدنانير وقد قال في المنع و لما جرى التعامل في زماننا في البلاد الرومية وغيرها وبوقف الدراهم و الدنائير دخلت تحت قول محمد المفتى به في كل منقول فيه تعامل وكذا القدوم والفاس يجوز وقفهما متى جرى التعامل بذلك و هکدا کل منقول من مکیل و موزون وقیمی و مثلی و قدر و جنازة و ثیابها و مصحف و كتب لأن تعامل المسلمين فيما يكون مبناة على العرف من الاحكام حجة يتزى بها القياس لحديث . ما رآة المسلمون حسنا فهو عند الله حسن . كما رواة احمد [في كتاب السنة و هو حديث حسن صوقوف لكنة في حكم الموقوم] و لذلك قال في المبسوط ان الثابت بالعرف كالثابت بالنص و الله اعلم *

کتبـــه

محمد بخيت المطيعي الحذفى بالازهر

چه میفرمایند حضرت حجة الاسلام و ملاذ الانام . IXXXII.

مد ظله العالی در این مسئله شرعیه که هرگاه اشخاصی جمع گشته و ملکی را
بقیبتی معین بشرکت مشاعی از روی حصص خریده مثلا کسی دارای ده حضه
و کسی بیست حصه و همچنین بقفاوت از روی حصص بخرند که هر ساله منافع
آنرا از روی حصص سرشکن کرده بصاحبان حصص بدهند برای ترضیح مسئله
صد نفر بازاری را هزار حصه قرار داده قیمت هر حصه را صد روپیه مقرر کرده
خریدند - که منافع آنرا سالیانه ازروی حصص بصاحبانیکه بلیت آن شرکت دارند
برسانند و زیری مثلا ده بلیت که ده حصه بوده باشد دارد آیا زید میتراند که

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ابن حصة خود را وقف نهايد كه اصل بحال خود بهاند و منافع آن را در جهتى كه معين كرده صوف نهايند و ابن چنين وقف صحيح و نافذ است ازروى قوانين اثناعشويه يا نيست استدعا آنكه حكم مسئله را كاملا آنچه فتواى حضويت عالي است معتضدا بالكتب المعتبرة من علماء السلف قلمي فرموده بخاتم شريف مختم فرمايند [و السلام] *

بسهم الله تعالى

وقف مشاع صحیح است باتفاق شیعه و اکثر اهل سنة و جماعة از فقهاء اربعه وفیرهم مگر قول نادری از بعض عامة و اخبار گثیرة صحیحه صربحه بر صحت صدقه مشاع از اثمه علیهم السلام وارد شده که صواد از صدقه یا خصوص وقف است و یا وقف اظهر افراد آن است پس صحت این وقف از جهة مشاع بودن ملک میان چند نفر اشکالی ندارد و چون قبض شرط صحت وقف است باید بقبض مرقوق غلیه و یا بقبض متولی بدهد بسان نحو که اگر حصه گرد را میفروخت چگوه بقبض مشتری می آیده و در وقف بقبض متولی بدهد و اگر گرد را متولی وقف نموده خددش عمل بوقف نماید و این تصرف عمد برا و بقبض متولی وقف نموده نمادن نه تصرف مالک پس اگر وقف نمود ملک از وقف در حیاة خود و اگر و اقف صود پیش از قبض وقف باطل میشود و الله العالم *

حورة الاحقر عبد الله المازندراني النجفي

APPENDIX II.

(سلال) في رجل وقف جاسوساً في بلد لم يتعارفوا وقفه ولا تعاملوا به فاذا صدر من واحد او اثنين هل يعد ذلك تعاملا او لا ...

(الجواب ... (1) و مقتضى قولهم غلب ذلك إفى اوقافهم الله لا يكفي صدورة من واحد أو الذين لانه ليس بغالب (٢) قال العلامة أبن الهمام في التحرير [في بحث الحقيقة] أن التعامل هو الاكثر استعمالا الا *

فروع - التعامل

منافع الدقائق شرم مجمع الحقائق صفحة ٢١٩

[اي استعمال الناس فيما بينهم بالاخذ والاعطاء وغيرهما -اعلم أن التعارف و التعامل بمعنى واحد يذكر احدهما في بعض الكتب والاخر في بعضها وقدعطف التعارف على التعامل بطريق التفسير في المحيط حيث ذكر فيده أن ترى أنقياس جائز بتعامل الناس وتعارفهم انتهى كذا نقل عن الشيخ زادة - في زمن الاجتهاد ان - كأن اى التعامل - كلها - قال المصنف في منهواته لعله العادة الغالبة يلحق اليد أما في الاشباد العادة انما تقبل أذا اطردت أو غلبت كتعامل جميع الناس في العزارعة والمشاركة - فاجهام عملي - وسكوتي اذا الادلة الشرعية اربعة والاجماع مختص بالمجتهدين فلابد أن يكون ذلك التعامل في زمنهم راجعا الى اجماعهم كذا بينه احمد الرومي في حاشية المراة وهو حجة فيما لم بخالف الشرع و نص الفقهاء - و ان - كان التعامل مختصا - لبلدة خاصة فكذا -اى فاجماع عملي - عند بعض ـ و فى الحاشية و هو مشايخ - و الاصح لا - اى لا يكون اجماعا - بل يعتبر - اي ذلك التعامل الخاص - فيما لا نص فيد - اي في حقه للالحاق بالكلي او لرجوعة الى نص - وكذا - الاصح أن التعامل - الكلي في غير زمن الاجتهاد - معتبر فيما لانص فيه كالتعامل الكلي في زمنه - ولهذا قالوا استعمال الناس حجة ، و ادرجه بعضهم في قوله عليه السلام ماراً لا المؤمنون حسنًا فهو عندالله حسن *

اما- العرف الخامى - وهو ما تعارف به قوم معين - فلا يثبت الحكم العام به الى بالعرف الخامى - وقيل يثبت - كما نقله المصنف من البزازية *]

العقد المنظوم في ذكر افاضل الروم الموضوع بهامش الجزء الثاني من تاريخ ابن خلكان - في ترجمة المفتي ابي السعود - صفحه وعاعا

ولما وقع الخلاف بينه و بين المولى محمد المشتهر بجوي زادة في جواز وقف النقود الذي شاع في هذة الديار و جرى عليه التماصل في نلك الاقطار كتب رحمه الله رسالة يحقق فيها جوازة و اكثر من الدلائل و النقول الدالة مطلقا على جواز وقف المنقول اذا جرى عليه التعامل سيما من الفحول ه

JUNE, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 7th June, 1911, at 9-15 p.m.

LIEUTENANT-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT, F.A.S.B., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Maulavi Abdul Wali, Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. A. C. Atkinson, Dr. W. A. K. Christie, Mr. F. H. Gravely, Rai B. A. Gupte, Bahadur, Mr. D. Hooper, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Mr. J. C. Johnston, Mr. H. C. Jones, Mr. S. W. Kemp, Mr. W. Kirkpatrick, Mr. C. S. Lomax, Mr. G. H. Tipper, Dr. Satischandra Vidyabhusana.

Visitors:—Lt.-Col. F. Cunynghame-Hughes, Captn. R. B. S. Sewell, I.M.S.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Seventy presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Mr. H. M. Percival and Major W. D. Hayward, I.M.S., had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The General Secretary also reported the death of Major C. J. Robertson Milne, M.D., I.M.S., an Ordinary Member of the Society.

The following five gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Babu Ganesh Lal Barik, Gayawal, Chandchavra, Gaya, proposed by Capt. F. P. Connor, I.M.S., seconded by Dr. A. White Robertson; Lieut. H. G. Maturin, 61st R. G. O. Pioneers, Begumpet, Secunderabad, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Lieut. E. C. Seconde, 16th Rajputs, Bareilly, U.P., proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Maulavi M. Hedayet Hosain, Lecturer, Presidency College, 7-1, Ram Shanker Roy's Lane, Calcutta, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Dr. K. K. Chatterji, F.R.C.S., 33, Dharamtolla Street, proposed by Major E. A. R. Newman, I.M.S., seconded by Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.

Mr. S. W. Kemp exhibited specimens of Apus from the United Provinces.

The following papers were read:—

1. Folklore of the origin of the constellation Mriga-shirsha.—By RAI B. A. GUPTE, Bahadur.

This paper has been published in the Journal for April, 1911.

- 2. A Vocabulary of the Pasi Boli or Aryot of the Kanchandiya Kanjars.—By W. KIRKPATRICK.
- 3. Gangesa Upadhyaya, the founder of modern Nyaya.—By Dr. Satish Chandra Vidyabhusana.

These two papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

4. Some Notes on Urdu Grammar.—By LIEUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT, F.A.S.B., Secretary, Board of Examiners.

This paper has been published in the Journal for April, 1911.

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 14th June, 1911, at 9-30 p.m.

MAJOR E. A. R. NEWMAN, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. U. N. Brahmachari, Dr. Adrian Caddy. Dr. C. H. Elmes, Major E. E. Waters, I.M.S., and Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

I. The following clinical cases were shown:-

A case of very acute Lymphatic Leukaemia—shown by Major E. E. Waters, I.M.S.

A case of fracture of the lower end of the Humerus with great displacement of the lower fragments as shown by X-ray photographs, the result of treatment being very satisfactory—shown by Dr. Elmes.

A case for diagnosis, a swelling of the head of the tibia—shown by Major Newman.

The cases were discussed by the Chairman, Major Waters, Dr. Caddy, Dr. Elmes, Dr. Brahmachari, and the Secretary.

II. The following paper was read :-

Some peculiar effects of Salvarsan.—By Dr. C. H. Elmes.

The discussion on the paper was postponed owing to the lateness of the hour.

28. Notes on the newly-found Manuscript of Chatuhsatika by Aryadeva.

By MAHAMAHOPADHYAYA HABAPRASAD SHASTRI.

A batch of palm-leaves came to my hand, containing fragments of four different works. One fragment of this has several colophons, purporting to say that the leaves belong to some commentary on Aryadeva's Catuhsataka. This roused my curiosity, and I carefully examined the leaves. I found that only twenty-three leaves belong to Aryadeva and his commentator. The last possessor of the manuscript had obliterated all the original leaf-marks, except one, and had put in new leaf-marks of his own from 16 to 38, the leaf containing the ancient leaf mark being the 15th. The leaf marked 29 by the late owner does not belong to this work at all, but to some work on grammar. So I did not count it among the 23 leaves, which

really belong to Aryadeva's work.

The leaves were not in order. The first chapter ended in the 38th leaf, the third chapter in the 15th, the fourth chapter in the 17th, the eighth chapter in the 34th, the ninth chapter in the 37th, the thirteenth in the 28th, and the fifteenth in the 33rd. Instead of attempting to put the leaves in order I allowed them to remain as they were, and transcribed each leaf in a sheet of foolscap, writing the obverse side in one half sheet and the reverse side in another. I then tried to put the foolscap sheets in order. The 20th leaf came before the 18th: they are consecutive. The 24th and the 25th leaves. on examination, were found also to be consecutive. The 21st and the 19th are also found to be consecutive. The 22nd, the 34 h and the 38th appear to be consecutive, but I can not be positive on the point that the last two are so. The 26th, the 27th. the 28th, the 30th and the 31st are also found to be consecutive. By reading over the sheets several times, I have given them an order of my own, and marked to em from 1 to 23.

As the 3rd chapter came to an end in leaf 15, which alone in these leaves bears the ancient leaf-mark, I thought the average length of chapters to have been five leaves; and as there are sixteen chapters in this work the length would be, according to that average, eighty leaves. But as the last eight chapters are philosophical and controversial, and therefore, are likely to have been longer than the first eight which are dogmatic and religious, I would give them a leaf more each, so the length of the work would be about 88 leaves. The fragment in hand therefore is only a fourth of the whole work. But as the color

phons of seven chapters are to be found'in these 23 leaves, there is enough to know about the ends of these chapters and the beginnings of the next following chapters. At the end of the 8th chapter there is a statement: "In the subsequent eight chapters will be treated of-how men can understand the nature of the world." "तच नगत्सभावदर्शिनं यथा भवति तथा उत्तर्ज-प्रकर्णेरहाभिः प्रतिपादिषञ्चात." In the beginning of the 9th chapter there is a statement to a similar effect. "समन्त्रा नप्रक-र्गानलप्रसालितचित्तसन्तानस्य तत्वास्तदेशनापात्रस्य शिष्यस्य बाचार्यो-उतः प्रसर्वाप्रकः प्रकारगीर्थेषास्थित पदार्थत न्वाधिग्रसाय तन्विनस्वयमार-अकामः संस्कृतस्योदयव्ययत्वेनासारतामुद्भावयद्गादः." So from this it appears that the last eight chapters are the suafgre or the remaining chapters of the work. In the commencement of the 16th chapter there is a statement to the same effect—"वनन्ता-नौः पश्चदश्वभिः प्रकर्णैः श्रास्त्रकार्थे पार्समापय श्रास्त्राहम्भ न्योजन क्षाना अनाप्रेषपरिचारची पदर्भयन बोडम् प्रकरणमार्भते." this it is apparent that the whole work is divided into 16 chapters, and that the first eight chapters are dogmatical and religious, and the last eight chapters are philosphical and controversial.

The first four chapters treat of the means by which one may get rid of four wrong impressions. The first of these impressions is the belief in the eternity of things that are non-eternal. The second impression is that of happiness where only sorrow exists. The third is to consider that to be pure which is really impure. The fourth is to consider that to be self which is not self. And in the subsequent four chapters Buddhas are extolled as the only teachers of truth. As liberated souls they have no interest in teaching, yet for the benefit of the animated creation they constantly teach. The eighth chapter ends with a quotation from Buddhapālita, a teacher not known to Nanjio. The 9th chapter proves that in reality nothing exists. The 10th chapter in the beginning controverts a novel doctrine of there being two souls to a man. It also controverts the theory of the Sankhyas. The Sankhya doctrines controverted here differ in many respects from that of Išvarakṛṣṇa, the oldest writer on Sānkhya known up to the present date. The 13th chapter declares that there can be neither senses nor the objects of senses. In this and in the following chapter the writer comes into conflict with the Vaisesikas. In the 15th chapter he proves the non-reality of the phenomenal world. The sixteenth concludes the whole work.

In the colophons of the first and the 8th chapters the work is named as चार्यहें दीच, that is, written, by Aryadeva, वोध-

संख्योगाचार the Yogācāra doctrine of the Bodhisattvas, and as Catuhsataka or composed of 400 slokas. The term Catuhsataka may mean either a work in verse or in prose, the extent being 400 slokas of 32 letters each. In the present case the work appears to be in 400 Anustup verses, though I am not sure that there are not some sentences in prose. But when it is named Catuhsataka, the extent must be 400 × 32 letters or something approaching to it. The text is accompanied by an exceedingly lucid commentary by some writer later than Buddhapālita, the commentator of the Madhyamaka Kārikās by Nāgārjuna. The writer of the text is well known. Nanjio's catalogue contains the names of nine of his works. He is often mentioned in Hieunth Sang's itinerary. Beal in his Caternea speaks very highly of his works. He is said to have been a disciple of Nagarjuna, and must have flourished about the 2nd century A.D. But we know nothing of the commentator, not even his name. Some of his words have a peculiar Bengali look. He might have hailed from Eastern India. Aryādeva was a Southerner.

In order to ascertain the verses of the texts I had to collect all the verses given in these leaves in one place. Their number is 186. Thirty verses have been marshalled into the leaves without any introduction, and they are in various metres. These are no part of the text. Thirty have been introduced with such words as "प्रतिपाइयद्वाइ" in 16 instances, जिद्यायद्वा-चार्थ बाह्र in one, उपदर्शयन् बोड्यां प्रकरणमार्भते, उद्वावयद्वाह in seven instances, तसुपालभते in one, अपाकर्तमाइ in one, वद्याति हि in one, तान् प्रवाचाते in one, and आचार्य आह in one instance. Thus in fifty-nine instances we can positively say that these verses belong to the Catuhsataka of Aryadeva. When a खलु," "चत्रव," "यसात," such verses are generally quoted by the commentator to support the text. Such verses may belong to other authors or other works of Aryadeva, but not to the text. The verses introduced with such words as "तथाग-तेनोत्तम्," "उत्तं भगवता," "उत्तद्याचार्य बुद्धपानितेन," and "तथागते प्रविचे" are undoubtedly quotations from known works. But when a verse is introduced with such words as "sund." "इत्यते," "बाइ चान," it becomes difficult to say whether they belong to the text or to some other work. But when any one of such verses is accompanied by a long commentary, it is most probably a part of the text. Taking the number to be about 30, this fragment contains 59 × 30 verses of the original text. We have found, however, that 118 verses have been commented on. But some of them are undoubtedly outside the text.

In the first eight chapters of this work, the commentator often illustrated philosophical ideas by short stories which are charmingly beautiful, and throw a flood of light on the manners and customs of the people and may contribute to the already rich folk-lore of India. I will give only four instances:—

- (1) To illustrate the fact that custom () is stronger than law (), he gives the story of grafally or marrying a daughter. A certain person went to the country of the Yavanas. He found a Yavana light a fire, and by his magical power made the fire speak. The fire said, "Your daughter will be your wife." The man had a handsome daughter at home. He thought of mar ying the daughter. He implored the Yavana to give him the magical power. Armed with the magical power he went home and lit a fire. But the fire said, "You cannot marry your daughter: that is not the custom of your country."
- (2) To illustrate the doctrine that things seen in the proper light appear ugly and uninteresting, he gives the story of a friar in Kamboja. A Buddhist Bhiksu went to Kamboja for mendicancy. A man came to him and said, "Begging here is regarded as a very low occupation. So do not utter a word asking for anything. The Bhiksu went on with the alms-bowl in hand without speaking a word. The people there never saw a Bhiksu: they were experts in making machines. They thought that some expert machine-maker sent them a curious machine which can open and close its eyes like a man And he has done so to overmatch them. They in their turn prepared a similar machine and sent it to him. He saw the fun of it. He came out and asked the Bhiksu to speak. The Bhiksu spoke. "Let there be no disease." The people of Kāmboja were struck with wonder and said that they had not the skill to make the machine speak. If they knew that he was really a Bhiksu, they would have treated him with contempt.
- (3) To illustrate that Buddhas are never inactive and even their very breath is for the benefit of the animated world, a story is given of a Bhiksu sojourning in the house of a Pārāšara or a machine-maker. A Bhiksu went to the house of a machine-maker for alms. The machine-maker invited him to remain at the house for the rainy season. He gave the Bhiksu his food. When the Bhiksu wanted to go after four months, the man paid a sum of money for the purchase of monastic robe, and also wanted to pay his wages. The Bhiksu refused to accept any wages, as he had done nothing to deserve them. The man pointed out that below the room in which he lived

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there was a machine which worked constantly by the pressure of his body as he moved about, and produced blades of knife, and that he was a g eat gainer by the sale of these. Just as every motion of the Bhiksu was for the benefit of the owner of the machine; so every motion of the Buddhas was for the benefit of the three worlds.

(4) The Brāhmanas say that the man who dies in battle goes to heaven, because he sacrifices the dearest thing in the world, his life, for glory. Says the commentator, this is not proper. And to illustrate it, he gives the story of a milkmaid who offered her person to her father-in-law. The son of an old milkman was away. His wife treated the old man very badly, insulted him and gave him scanty food. On the return of the son, the father complained of her conduct, and he scolded his wife and ordered her to do everything to make his father comfortable, and to do even the hardest thing to please him. When the son was again away the daughter-in-law served her father-in-law with great attention and care. At night she made a nice bed for him, washed his feet with tepid water and prepared to lie on the bed with him. The old man said, "What are you doing?" She said, "Your son has ordered me to do the hardest thing to please you; and nothing is harder for a woman than to offer her person." The old man greatly annoyed left the house. The son on his return enquired about his father, and the wife gave him the whole story, not omitting the offer of her person. The son drove her away and entreated the father to come and live with him. She made a great sacrifice, but nobody praised her for it. So if you die only for glory, you do not do the right thing.

The work, a fragment though it is, throws a good deal of light on the life in ancient India: (1) It often speaks of curious machines as in the stories given above. (2) It speaks of the unreal nature of the caste-system; it speaks of people of other castes and other countries being regarded as Khsatriyas on account of their Ksattriya occupation. (3) It scouts the idea of purity on which the whole Brahminic system is based. (4) It gives expression to the extreme democratic idea that the king is only a servant of the mass, who pay the sixth part of their income as his wages. (5) It ridicules the monks who secretly drank wine at night. (6) It presupposes the existence of a literature in the Kavya style and quotes many verses, of which later Sanskrit poets might well be proud. (7) It brings out, in bold relief, the antagonism which existed between the Buddhists and Brāhmanas in the story of Ācārya Sanghasena and his pupil. Acarya Sanghasena asked his pupil to become an Upasaka. But he demurred. But after a few days he came back and said, "O Acarya, I have become an Upāsaka, because whenever I meet a Brāhmana, I wish to kill him."

The philosophical ideas embodied in this fragment are characterized by boldness which is rare even in works that are already published, of the Mahayana school. The soul, the senses and the object of senses are all declared to be phenomenal: and then all phenomena are declared to be unreal. What the reality is can not be gathered from this fragment. Aryadeva is reputed to be pupil of Nāgārjuna, the author of the Mādhyamaka or the Sunyavada theory. In this work, however, Aryadeva though refuting the Vaibhāsikas does not seem to say anything against the Madhyamkas; yet the work is called Bodhisattva-yogācāra. And the probability is that he is a teacher of Yogacara or the Vijnana-vada theory. That the Aupanisadas and the later Vedantists borrowed largely from Arvadeva's works is undoubted. This book, therefore, is extremely valuable as one of the earliest works on the transcendental school of thought in India.

Though Nanjio speaks of the translations of nine works by Aryadevas in Chinese, the Catuḥāatakas is not one of them. It is said to have a Tibetan translation. The fragment, therefore, is that of a unique work, both as regards the text and the

commentary.

One other work of Aryadeva in Sanskrit was found by me and published in J.A.S.B. n 1898. I could not find the name of the work. But Professor Bendall wrote to me to say that its name was Cittavisuddhiprakarana. A tentative translation of the work appeared in the Evangelical Review. That book is also characterized by the boldness of its conceptions, its anti-Brahminic tendencies, and by its attempts to whitewash the blemishes of monastic life.

On the last day of his stay in Calcutta, I showed this MS. to Professor Schervetzky, and he was convinced of the genuineness of the work. He pronounced it to be a great discovery. He said that European scholars would be anxious to get it, and asked me to go to press at once. Little did he think at the time that the owner, by effacing the old page marks, had put even this small fragment of this work into great confusion. Dr. Ross tells me that Professor Schervetsky regarded the finding of this work as the greatest sensation during his stay in India.

It is not out of place to mention here that though I have paid great attention in transcribing and trying to understand the work, the difficulty of understanding a unique work in a fragmentary condition is such that my readers should accept my findings as tentative till the work is subjected to a more

careful examination.

29. Folk-songs and Folk-lore of the Gehara (Kanjars).

By W. KIRKPATRICK.

Gehárá, as I have stated in a previous paper, is the intertribal appellation of an endogamous section of Kanjars.

It will be noticed that in the following few verses prominence is given to the name of one $M\acute{a}n\acute{a}$, each line or verse beginning and ending with this name—apparently by way of invocation. $M\acute{a}n\acute{a}^{-1}$ is seemingly a sort of deified ancestor common to various Kanjar tribes, and among the Gehárás is sometimes known as $M\acute{a}n\acute{a}$ Gúr \acute{u} .

A well-known legend—confirmed with some slight variation by Mr. Crooke—is that Máná was attached to the Court of Delhi as a maker of khas-khas tatties (Crooke's version is that he was a brush-maker; kūnch band). The King of Delhi had two famous wrestlers (péhlwán) Málá and Dáná-Crooke gives the names "Kállú and Mallú"—who were champions of the world." Anyhow Málá and Dáná were noted as athletes (Crooke: "for their skill in swinging the athlete's chain bow"; lezám). Máná apparently did not take these two péhlwán seriously and suggested an exchange of occupations. Crooke says: 'Mana happened to pass by and "taking the bow plunged it so deep into the ground that no "one could withdraw it." The Emperor hearing of Máná's prowess and ambitions sent for him and made him wrestle with Málá and Dáná. Needless to say Máná was victorious. The version of the story as given to me continues that Málá and Dáná both fought Máná at the same time, but quickly seeing themselves outmatched they took a mean advantage -Dáná seized Máná's chóti 3 or chūttiá from behind while Málá

Col. Phillott has suggested to me that this use of Máná's name at the beginning and end of a song or verse is in conformity with a common practice in Oriental poesy and would identify Mana as the 'writer

and composer.'

⁸ The propriety of continuing to wear the choti or chūttiá by Hindu

¹ Mr. Nesfield says: "The man-god whom the Kanjars worship is Mana—a name which does not appear in any of the lists of the Hindu divinities. While he lived amongst men (the italics are mine—W. K.) he was the model fighter, the great hunter, the wise artificer and the unconquered chief. He was not only the teacher and guide but also the founder and ancestor of the tribe."

² Ibbetson's Punjab Ethnography in describing the Sánsis (a tribe closely allied to the Kanjars—W. K.) divides them into two tribes known as Kálká and Málká. The Bawáriás also have a section called Kálkamaliá, not to be confused with the Sansis or Kanjars however; Kálkamaliá with the Bawarias meaning simply "Black blankets."

made a feint in front. Máná dashed forward at Málá and in the effort had his chóti torn off and left in Dáná's hands: Máná eventually threw them both, "ásmán dakháia !- but the loss of his chóti deprived him for ever after of his virtue as a Hindu, and in no small degree of his renown as an ancestor! A fable of this sort affords an irresistible opportunity to a tribe for explaining away their present or recently past non-Hindu state, and an excuse to hark back to an imaginary Hindu origin. In fact we here have Máná's claim to posthumous fame being denied him by his own people; striving as they are with the rest of the casteless millions of India to obtain a footing, even though it be on the lowest rung of the Hindu social ladder.8 And so it comes about that Máná is at the present day looked upon by the Kanjar community, certainly the Gehárás, rather in the light of a necessary evil-so much so, if I have been able to correctly gauge their thought, that he is disreputable enough to require propitiation, that his name may not to be mentioned except as we see it in use - as an invocation. One of my informants, a well-known Gehárá shikári, was highly amused at my expecting him to pronounce the name in ordinary tones. He had no objection to repeating the name "Máná," but only in a sort of drone or chant—"Oh! Ma-á-á-ná!"

Máná had a wife called Nathiyá, a lady with even less of a reputation than Máná, and she is not to be confused with the Great Mother or Mother Great Queen, the female and supreme deity known as Mári or Máháráni or Dáiá Máháráni. Máháráni is the principal Kanjar deity, and her male

converts to Christianity has recently been the subject of some discussion

in Missionary circles in India.

1 Ashman or "asman dakhaiya" = "showed him the sky." I referred this expression to Mr. C. A. W. Sands of the U.P. Police (C.I.D.), the authority on Indian Küshti or wrestling, and he has very kindly given me the following interesting note:- "There is a custom in 'parts of the Punjab (chiefly I believe in the South) of regarding it 'as a fall (chit) for a man to be supine to see the sky. This is not 'generally recognized among Indian wrestlers as a fall. The ordinary 'fall is the 'donon shanen ke kushti'—that of both shoulder blades 'touching the ground. This is the 'chit' generally recognized through-'out India."

2 This is interesting, as Crooke in "Tribes and Castes," III, p. 147, says: "The Kunchbands sometimes offer the hair of an infant to Mana." The Gehárás are a section of the Kunchband Kanjars.

As Sir Herbert Risley puts it, "that course of development by "which a non-Aryan tribe transforms itself into a full-blown caste claiming definite rank in the Brahmanical system."

* Crooke. Vol. IV, p. 74, in description of Nate, says: "Mari is worshipped when cholers appears in the village." The Kolhates of Bombay worship among others the cholera goddess Maria—Bombay Gasette, XX, 186 eq.

5 See Vocabulary of Pási Boli or Argot of Kunchband Kanjars-

Journ. As. Soc. Beng., vol. vii, no. 6, p. 277.

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companion is known as Khetrpál, who is however of no great consequence, and, I imagine, has been introduced to the Gehárá Kanjars by contact with allied tribes. Khetrpál is the same as Bhumiuá (Bhewáni?), and in another form Saim or Sayam. Still it is interesting to note that when on rare occasions he has to be propitiated he has a special form of puja. A small square space is cleared and plastered over with cow-dung, and on this seven spots or tikás are made with Saindoor.2 Betel and wine are then dispensed and the hūgá handed round. Khetrpál is said to have a particular shrine somewhere near Calcutta, under an Imli (tamarind) tree.

Máháráni Dái or Dáiyá has a shrine at Miránpore (Maháránpore?), near Allahabad, also under a tamarind tree. The Imli, it has been impressed upon me, is the Kanjar's deodar or special sacred tree. This shrine at Allahabad is periodically visited by all the Kunchband and other Kanjars from the Southern Punjab and Western districts of the United Provinces 8 and has been frequented by Delhi Kanjars for over fifty years. It will be seen that in Song IV Maháráni is referred to as Pūrbėni freely translated "Queen of the East."

Another legend connects Máná with Dáná-the wrestler who deprived Máná of his chóti—as his brother. This I think, however, is only a convenient excuse for introducing some more flim flam to show Hindu origin. Máná and Dáná it is said were both Koli or Juláhás, and had "huga páni" relations

Khetrpal is also one of the deities worshipped by Hill Doms in

² Saindur—the red lead which is used by so many castes and tribes in India, in one of the most binding parts of the marriage ceremony—the bridegroom rubs saindur on the bride's head; the parting in the hair painted red is a sign of the married state.

¹ Khetr = earth, place; pal-protector or owner. See Ibbetson's Census report, account of the Aheris, or Thoris or Heris who "worship "specially Babaji or Kohmand in Jodhpore and Khetrpal of Jodh-"pors."

⁸ In confirmation of this, Mr. Geoffrey Clarke, I.C.S., Postmaster-General, U.P., while at Allahabad this year very kindly obtained and sent me the following note:—"Miranpur is a village on the banks of the Jumna on the Allahabad city side of the Jumna Bridge, and under a small Imli tree about ten years old is the Mandr of the goddess Dharáná Mai: she is placed on a small kutcha platform 'and rests against a small wall. She is about a foot in height. The land on which the shrine stands was the property of Mahamdu, and some time back was purchased by Jhuneri Kanjar, resident of Colonel-'gunge, Allahabad. Jhungri is still alive, and appears to be the officiating 'priest.' The Mandir is well know to and frequented by Kanjars, Nutts and Badiyas. Jhungri Kanjar is not called a Mahunt, though he is the owner of the deophar. It is well known to local Pandus that D-lhi and Punjabi Kanjars pay visits of pilgrimage to the shrine and venerate the Imli tree. Ther appears to be no fixed season for the worship of the goddess. Fowls, goats and pigs are sacrificed and sweetmeats are offered and distributed by Jhungri Kanjar.

with all Sudras; but one day unknowingly Máná partook of some food off a leaf plate which had been left by Dáná as his jhútá. Dáná thereupon outcasted Máná, and this following upon the loss of his choti was the last straw! Máná's wife, as I have said, was Nathiyá; she died before Máná's degradation, and this is why it is explained all married Gehárás when they die are cremated, while the unmarried are buried—in a lying posture, face upwards—head to the north and feet to the south. When the Chowdhri or Naik of a camp dies and time and money permits he is buried in a sitting posture. I was never able to get a very definite confirmation of this practice, but it is a custom known to the Gehárás and in fact claimed by them, and I mention it as it is common to many of these wandering tribes.

As an example of how difficult it is to make too definite statements with regard to the folk-lore or origin of these hitherto casteless tribes, particularly now that they are so rapidly coming under Hindu influence, I had a reputable old Chowdhri of the Delhi gang disclaiming all knowledge of Mana; he said his pir was "Rám Dijai whose shrine is at Ronéchá near Pokerji in riásat Jodhpore," and I believe this is all it was-Ram Dijai is his own particular saint. In a generation or two the luckless Máná will be wiped off the Gehárá pantheon and Ram Dijai will reign supreme. This old disciple of the usurper Ram Dijai insisted that Máháráni committed sati on Ram Dijai's pyre, and that Ram Dijai was an incarnation of the Sufi poet Kabir. This is the sort of story one has to "sift out." but nevertheless there is some interest attaching to the relationship claimed with Kabir. Captain Richardson in his much-quoted article on Nats or Bazeegars mentions Kabir as the bard of the Nats.

The first song, inculcating endogamy, is perhaps the only one of interest from an ethnological point of view. The Gehárás are an endogamous section divided up again into several distinct exogamous septs mostly of totemistic origin. I have only been able to discover one song, or as I should more correctly describe it, a proverb, with an exogamic allusion. "Oh! Söhnrá, kás mé ná tirná" = "Oh Sohnra, do not swim in the rushes!" Sohnra is the title of an eponymous exogamous sept of the Gehárás, the founder being one Söhnrá who once when journeying came to a river in full flood, and as he could not cross over, he laid him down to sleep among the kás or feathery rushes on the bank. At midnight he awoke, and it being moonlight with a wind blowing, the mov-

? Sohnrá as a name may well be an invention, a nickname in fact; soh ráhá = he is sleeping.

¹ Kabir or Kubeer, a well-known Deist and Sufi poet of humble origin and the founder of the sect known as Kabirpant.

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ing grasses had the appearance of flowing waters. Under the delusion that the river had overflowed its banks and that he was surrounded by water, he struck out to save himself, going through the actions of swimming. Hence "kás me tirná" is now a saying applied to anyone, so to speak, grovelling in the dark, or on the wrong track, or wrong scent in shikar; while the negative application of the proverb, i.e. kás me ná tirná, may well be used, and I believe it is applied as a warning against marriage outside one's own sept.

1. Song inculcating Endogamy.

Oh, Máná! Gehári karsī thó náo chálsi Aur kájri karsi tho náo, ná chal-bá-bro.

Oh, Mana! (invocation):

(If you) take unto yourself a Gehári then (your) name will continue.

And (but) if you take (kar si = do it with) a Kájri (outsider; anyone not a Gehari), (your or our) name will not continue.

2. IN SICKNESS.

Deo mérá rothéro lé jái Mánúi ké ré,

Jin pakré thū né bódth ab né chalé théró Máné-bhai re!

Goddess! for the sake of Máná take away my troubles (pain)

Which you have (thought fit) to give me. Now you remove them—To you Máná!—Oh brother!

3. In Worship (Thanksgiving).

Dai, Má'ráni barro gad-sī pakháro Soná lái gadláro-jhánch Jaggo Maggé cholná Ko kátsi Aur Lál Miá Tar-bar! Jaggo Magge cholná Katsi, etc., repeat ad lib.

Oh Mother! Great Queen! (invocation): Go (thou) and bring a real (well made) spear

And bring golden cymbals.

(And) awake! and like a thread (which breaks) (your troubles) will be cut away.

And proclaim Lalmia 2 victorious.

(In the sense that Lalmia will prevail).

¹ Chal-ba-bro. This is a fanciful inflection (instead of chalsi in the first line) to meet the requirements of the chant. Chalsi-chalná to go.

2 Lalmia—The red or "beautiful one"—a heroic title for Máná.

4. ORDINARY WORSHIP, PROPITIATION IN A SPIRIT OF HUMILITY.

Máná théri ráhéné güjargái Máná! Théri dáin Kálká, báin Pürbéni Simar ké chailo! Máná!

Mana! (invocation):

Your stay (addressed as to oneself) is fleeting (literally "has expired").

On your right (you have the support of) Kálká, On your left (you have) the "Queen of the East."

And (supported by these) you (we) should go forward. or continue, in (our) life with proper humility—Oh Máná! (invocation).

 $M\dot{a}n\dot{a}$ appears no less than three times in this song; and I read it as being an invocation, and not that the warning conveyed is addressed to $M\dot{a}n\dot{a}$. It is, I believe, the suppliant who feels that his protestations will not carry weight unless he propitiates Mana by using his name.

30. The Stambhesvari.

By B. C. MAZUMDAR, B.L., M.R.A.S.

Communicated with a note by R. D. BANERJI, M.A., M.R.A.S., Indian Museum, Calcutta.

NOTE.

Mr. Mazumdar's paper is partly ethnological and partly antiquarian. I have nothing to say about the ethnological part of the paper, but I believe Mr. Mazumdar is right in his conclusions, as he has resided in the Sambalpur district for more than a quarter of a century and knows the Orissa Feudatory States very intimately. The modern vernacular for a pillar, the Sanskrit stambha, is khāmbhā in Hindi, thāma in Bengali, and khambā in Oriya. So a goddess, whose name in Sanskrit is Stambheśvarī, would be called Khambheśvarī. During the lifetime of the late Dr. Bloch I had the good fortune of examining the Puri plates of Kulastambhadeva, and I think Mr. Monmohan Chakravarti's transcript cannot be improved.

I believe Mr. Chakravarti is right in assuming that the king Kulastambhadeva is descended from the Cālukyas. In a copperplate grant which I have recently received through the Superintendent, Orissa Feudatory States, from the Chief of Tālcher, Kulastambhadeva is described as an ornament of the Sūlki dynasty, who were famed in the Three Worlds:

—dābja reņavah svasti tribhuvana-vidite Sūlki-rāja-vamsa-

-Obverse, 1. 2.

Now Sülki seems to be the equivalent of Solānki, which is certainly derived from Cālukya or Caulukya. The antiquity of the name Stambheśvari is apparent from this plate also. In the ninth line it is mentioned that the king Ranastambhadeva obtained a boon from the Goddess Stambheśvari:

Srī-Stambheśvari-labdha-vara-prabhāvo mahānubhāvaḥ Para-ma-māheśva-

- 10. —ro mātā-pitr-pādānudhyāyī samadhigata-pañca-mahāśabdo Ma-
 - 11. —hārājādhirājaķ Srī Raņastambhaķ......
 —Obverse, II. 9-11.

It appears from another copperplate belonging to the Raja of Baudh, which also I have received from the same source, that the Goddess Stambhesvari was also worshipped by the Bhañja kings:

- 16. —Samadhigata-pañcamahāsabda mahāsāmanta-vandita Stambhesvarī—
- 17. —labdha-vara-prasāda Rāṇaka Sri Raṇabhañjadeva kuśalī......

These plates will be published in the Epigraphia Indica.

R. D. B.

On a site in the centre of the town of Sonpur stands a pillar which is known to be the pillar of Stambheśvarī Devī. The word stambha means a pillar. When was it that this pillar was raised is not known to the people. The Mahārājā of Sonpur has informed me that it is believed by the people that his ancestor Raj Singh Deo, father of Achala Singh Deo and great-great-grandson of Raja Madangopal, the first Chief, brought this pillar to light, while removing a very big heap of old ruins. A slab of stone bearing an inscription of no great importance was also unearthed at that time. This inscription gives no clue whatever to the pillar or to any king who got the inscription engraved. Another account is, that the wife of Raj Singh Deo brought a little toy pillar of Khambesvari from the house of her father, a Raja of Kimidi. Raja Raj Sing then built a temple for Khambesvari to honour the goddess of his wife's forebears.

The tradition that it is a Stambheśvarī pillar is of importance; for the Goddess Stambheśvarī or Khambeśvarī, as popularly called, is not worshipped by the Brāhmans and Kshatriyas at Sonpur. The homage that is now paid to this pillar is for the fact that an old pillar once consecrated to some god or goddess has been found out in the debris of old buildings.

Khambeśvarī (Stambheśvarī) is now found in the Sambalpur tract, as well as in the western part of the Orissa Garjāt Mahals, to be the tutelary goddess of the Dumāl people. The Kandhs who live on the south-eastern border of Sonpur and in the State of Boad adjoining this border, do also regard Khāmbeśvarī to be their tribal goddess. The Dumāls are Hindus, and the Brāhmans drink water fetched by them. Both the Dumāls and the Kandhs set up wooden posts in their villages to represent the Goddess Khāmbeśvarī.

The Dumāls say that they originally came from Odśingā, which is in the Feudatory State of Athmallik which borders on the State of Boad to the south, and which almost touches the north-eastern border of the State of Sonpur, where this State adjoins the State of Rehrakhol. The geographical name Odśinga is of importance. For we find this name mentioned

in the copperplates of the Trikalinga Guptas. In one charter of Mahabhava Gupta Deva it has been mentioned that a Brāhman family which came from Odayaśṛngā (Odśinga) was granted a village in the Patna State (E.I., viii, pp. 138-43).

I have also been informed that some Dumāls say that they came originally from Khemri or Khemidi in Ganjam. My informer Pandit Kaśinātha Dāni gave me a couplet in Oriyā, which, he says, the Dumāls gave him in narrating their history. I have not yet been able to get the statement properly verified by any Dumāl. The couplet spoken of is as follows:—

Khemandi rājya nija sthāna Deḍa laksha Dumbā kalā bhiyāna.

The meaning is—Khemidi was the original home which created or gave rise to the Dumbās or Dumāls to the extent of one lakh-and-a-half in number. If this is a genuine tradition amongst the Dumāls, I am inclined to believe that it was Raj Sing's wife of Kimidi Raj family who introduced the goddess in the State of Sonpur.

The Dumāls set up their Goddess Khambesvarī by putting two posts of black wood in the earth. The Dumāls never wear any cloth or ornament which is black in colour. They always wear dhutis and saris having red border, and it is only red lac churis which they wear It is also to be noted that their women never put the mark of sindur or vermilion on their forehead as all the Hindu married women do. Usually in the Oriya villages the walls of the houses are painted dark with sticky ash-coloured earth; but the Dumāls invariably paint their house walls with brown-coloured geri māti. They say that as their Goddess Khambesvarī is black, they do not wear anything which is black in colour.

The Dumāl women do not wear any ornament about their feet or ankles, as usually women of other castes do. They only bore their left nostril to wear a nosering, and perforate the lobes of the ear for similar purpose. But they religiously avoid perforating the other parts of the nose and the ear. I notice these customs so that in future some clue may be obtained for tracing the origin either of the Dumāls or of their customs.

The Dumāls worship their tribal Goddess Khambeśvari in the month of Asvin when the Durgā Pūjā is celebrated by the Hindus. In the month of Asvin they worship Khambeśvari under the spreading branches of a mahua (bassia latifolia) tree. It is significant to note that the god or goddess who has his or her seat under the shade of a tree, is called dimit in the Sambalpur tract. May it not be the case that the name Dumāl has its origin in dimli owing to the fact that these people worship a dimli goddess?

There is a caste in the Sambalpur tract called Sudh. This term is supposed to be a contraction either of the term Sūdra or of the word Suddha (pure). There are two sections of the Sudh people, namely, the Bu'kā Sudhs and the Bad Sudhs. The Butkā Sudhs are treated still as an aboriginal tribe and are not touched by the high class Hindus. But the Bad (big) Sudhs are allowed to offer water to the Brāhmans. The Dumāls interdine with the Bad Sudhs, but the Sudhs and the Dumāls do not intermarry. This shows that the Dumāls and the Sudhs are akin to each other, while the Sudhs must be supposed to have once belonged to the tribe of the Butkā Sudhs, who are considered to be of low origin.

Even where the Dunāls have their temples (called by the Telugu name gudi by all the Hindus of the Sambalpur tract) for their goddess, they fix in the earth two pieces of wood, one to represent Khamsiri or Khambesvari and the other to represent Parmasiri or Paramesvari. For the Paramesvari a piece of rohinī wood is obtained The word rohinī is in the feminine gender, and it means red-coloured goddess. The wood rohinī is Indian red wood which is known to the Botanists as soymida febrifuga. The Brāhman priest worships the Paramesvarī for the Dumāls, while the Dumāls themselves worship their Khambesvarī.

It is difficult to say whether the Khambesvarī has come over to the Dūmāls from the home of the Kandhs. The Aryan form of the name points to a time of Hindu or Hinduized influence both over the Dumāls and the Kandhs, at least in the translation of the name of the goddess. The sacrificial post of the Kandhs is also known to be of black wood. Regarding this, however, I have not got yet very satisfactory information.

I now relate another account of Khambeivari, though I cannot assert whether the Khambeivari, I am going to describe, has any connection or not with the goddess of the Dumils. The Goddess Stambheivari is found to have been the tribal or family goddess of some Rājās whose copperplate grants were published by Bābu Manomohan Chakravarti in the "Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal" (lxiv, 1895, pp. 123-27).

It is rather unfortunate that the original plates have not been published in the Journal. The editor of the Journal has also remarked that the text published in the Journal is that given by the author, and that the plates were not available for comparison. Since Bābu Manomohan Chakravarti is not himself sure whether his reading is correct all throughout, it is difficult to rely much upon the text. Line 8 of Plate A gives us one half foot and one full foot of the Indravajrā verse. Lines 11 to 13 contain two feet of Basantatilakā. If the text could be carefully read in the light of those meters, reconstruc-

tion of some portion of the text could be attempted in spite of

wrong spelling and bad grammar.

That Stambhesvari was the family goddess of the grantor is clear from the fourth line of Plate A. Whatever may be the form of the names of men, it cannot be said that the grantor belonged to Southern India. The inference of my friend Babu Manomohan Chakravarti that the grantor belonged to Calukya line cannot easily be accepted. Wrong spelling of words in the plates cannot justify us in changing Sulki into Calukya. On reference to the wrong spellings it can only be said that the plates were engraved at a time when the vowel "r" was pronounced both as "ri" and "ru" in Orissa. In the plates of the Trikalinga Guptas we get from the wrong spelling the northern "ri" sound only of "r." But in the plates of Kulastambha Deva "satru" has been misspelt as "satr" (line 19, Plate A front), and again "pañcarisaya" (line 4, reverse) has been engraved for "pancarsaya." The reading of the text by Bābu M. M. Chakravarti is "yaśca" for "pañca." Though the original plates cannot be obtained now for comparison, it can be easily said that "ya" could be misread for "pa" and "sca" for "nca." This only shows that the southern influence in Orissa only commenced, and the northern linguistic influence did not till then die out. This leads us to fix the date of the plates after the time of Mahābhava Gupta and his successors.

Then again the concluding lines of the charter are the same as we get in the charters of the Trikalinga Guptas (Epigraphia Indica, Vol. III, pp. 323 et seq.). In the light of the text of the plates of the Trikalinga Guptas I am inclined to think that the Kāyastha officer mentioned in the plates was a Bengali Kāyastha like Kailāsa Ghosa, Ballava Ghosa, Chāru

Datta, etc., of the plates of the Trikalinga Guptas.

Be that as it may, since no definite information can be obtained regarding the grantor who had Stambhesvari for the family goddess, it is safe not to make any inference at all regarding his original home and origin.

Thus far is certain, that some time after the reigns of Mahābhava Gupta and his successors, who assumed the title Trikalingādhipati, a Rāja made a grant of lands in Kalinga or Orissa and this Rāja had Stambhesvarī for family goddess.

Referring to the Epigraphic records of Assam we find that once by about the eleventh century or a little earlier, the Rājās Sālastambha, Bigrahastambha, Pālakastambha, Bijayastambha and others established a kingdom in Assam. This Sālastambha has been spoken of as a great chief of "the Mlecchas" (Gait's "History of Assam," p. 27). Who can say that the Saiva Kulastambha was not Mleccha to begin with, and did not belong to the Mleccha clan of Orissa tradition, which possessed Orissa for some time?

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31. Persian letters from Jahán Árá, daughter of Sháh Jahán, king of Dehli, to Raja Budh Parkásh of Sirmur. Communicated by Mr. H. A. Rose.

1.

ملية العالية شاء جهان بنـــــت جهان آرا

بسمم الله الرحدن الرحيم

زیدة الاماثل و الاقران قابل مرحمت و الاحسان راجه بده پرگاش بالتفات امیدوار بوده بداند عرضداشتی که درینولا با چند جانور و دالی انار تفصیل موقوم فرد جداگانه بطریق پیشکش ارسالداشته بود بوساطت بار یافتگان استان نقدس نشان رسیده از نظر مبارکه گذشت و آنچه معروضداشته بود که سفارش او را بخدمت حضرت خدیو زمین و زمان خداوند مکین و مکان ذریعهٔ ارامش عالمیان نموده اید معلوم رای عالم ارای گردید چون حضرت سلاطین پناه بمبارکی در مستقر الخلافه اکبرآباد تشریف دارند و ما بدولت درینجا ایم بدین وجه تحصیل مطلب او در توقف ماند توجه ما را شامل حال خود داند « بتاریخ شانزدهم جمادی الثانی سنه سیزده جلوسی

2.

زبدة الاماثل و الاقران لایق المرحمة و الاحسان مطیع الاسلام راجه بدلا پرکای بعنایات و التفات سرافراز بودلا بداند عرضداشتی که درینولا باهلیله و الر ترش و نربسی و صرغ زرین و نافه - باستان تقدس نشان ارسالداشقه بود رسیدلا بوساطت تتق نشینان عظمت و جلال بنظر فیض اثر گذشت صرغ زرین دیگر بهمرسانیدلا ارسالدارد و از رالا عنایت از پیشگاه فضل و کوم خلعت برای او عطا شدلا پرتو وصول افکندلا سعادت اندوز خواهد گردانید التفات ما را شامل حال خود داند ه

بقاريع يازدهم شهر شوال سنه چار ده قلمي شده

3.

مليد العاليد شاد جهان بنسست جهان آرا

بسم الله الرحين الرحيم

زیدة الاماثل و الاقران لایق رحمت و احسان مطیع الاسلام راجه بدی پرکاش بعنایت و التفات امهدوار بودی بداند عرضداشتی که درینولا با ناقهای مشک و چنور بطریق پیشکش ارسال داشته بود رسیدی بوساطت تتق نشینان سرادق عظمت و جای بنظر کیبیا اثر گذشت وجه پیشکش مذکور درجه پذیرائی یافت و آنچه حقیقت سوندها وغیوی تصویلداران خود و مال ضامن و حاضر ضامن، شدن زمینداران پرگنه سادهوری و باز گریزانیدن زمینداران مسطور آنها را با مقاع نقد و جنس و استدعا اینکه درینجادی بروح الله خان فوجدار میان دو آب و داور خان فوجدار سهرند و علی اکبر امین فوجدار پرگنه سادهوری نشان عالیشان شرف صدور یابد معروض داشته بود...رای عالم آرا گردید معلوم باد که عالیشان شرف صدور یابد معروض داشته بود...رای عالم آرا گردید معلوم باد که این زبدة الاقران خطا کرد که باز آنها را باءتماد ضامنی زمینداران پرگنه مذکور نگاهداشت چون ما درین قسم معاملات پادشاهی دخل نمیکنیم و بکسی چیزی نویسیم الحال او درین باب عرضداشت بدرگای سلاطین پذای ارسال دارد تا از نمی نویسیم الحال او درین باب عرضداشت بدرگای سلاطین پذای ارسال دارد تا از مینوی الحور لامع النور بنام هر کدام حکم صادر شود آنها بر طبق حکم والا زمینداران و تحویلداران او را بسته بامتاع نزد او بفوستند - تا آنکه این حقیقت بعرض شرف اقدس اعلی نوسد - روح الله وغیری هرگز بسته نخواهند فرستاد **

بقاريخ بست و يكم ربيع الثاني سنه ١٨ جلومي

4.

عليم العاليه شاير جهان بنـــــت جهان آرا

الله اكبر

وبعد الاماثل و الاقران بده بركائي بعنايت اميدوار بوده بداند موضداشتهاي متواتر كه معد دو مندوق برق بجناب قدسيد ارسال داشته بود رسيد از نظر مايد

Vol. VII, No. 7.] Persian letters from Jahan Ara.

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گذشت کیفیت مبرهن رای عالم کرای گودید شما نوشته اید که سید شفیع و باوري از ذخيرة سوكار بر آوردة ارسال داشته انه و نوشته آنها بما نوسيدة و برف هم بسيار چوكين و يخ مطلقاً درو نبود ازين بخاطر ما رسيده كه شايد از يخدانهاي ما نباشد و زمين دار كذهوال نوشته بود كه من فرستادة ام والله و اعلم و دیگر آنکه معروفی داشته که بعرض مقدس معلی رسانیده چفان شود كه حق بحقدار برسد مارا أنجه بايست كيفيت قبل أزين بعرض حضرت رسانيديم چنانچه حضرت مكور ببخشيان حكم فرصودند كه حسب الحكم بنويسيد كه هرکه تعدي و زیادتي خواهد کرد بجزای کردار خود خواهد رسید - و او اینطور عوضداشت نبودة و پیش احدی پادشاهی هم گفته که من بر کسی تعدی نكردة ام اين حد از قديم از ابا و اجداد من بودة اينها به تعدي گرفته بودند العال كه من قابو يافقم حدود خود گرفقم او اين طور ميكويد و شما این طور میگوید - تاکه بادشاه امین نخواهند فرستاد - تحقیق نخواهند نمود ر نفس الامر معلوم بندگان حضوت نعواهد شد که فوج تعین نهودن حکم خواهند فرمود - باز در این اثناء که بسبت دکهن و کابل لشکر مي بايد عجب است که طوف دیگر فوج روانه کنند صندرق سابق هم رسیدی بود هر سه صندوق سابق و حال رسیدند »

تحريراً في القاريخ هفتم شهر جمادي الاول سنة ٢١ قلمي شدة

شاة جهان نــــــت جهان آرا علية العالمة الكبر

زبدة الاماثل و الاقران لایق العنایت و الاحسان راجه بده پرکاش بعنایت و النقات امیدوار برده بدانند - عرضه داشتی که معه نافهای مشک و قالی کنار درینولا ارسال نموده بودید بوساطت باریابان حجاب سرادق عظمت و جلال رسیده از نظر فیض اثر ما گذشت چون از مشک اول بسیار محظوظیم ازینجهت تاکید نموده میشود که مشک تقلیدی نفوستید در گوفتن مشک مذکور احتیاط تمام نموده اصل کنوا ارسال مینموده باشید - عنایت ما را شامل حال

تعويراً في النازاخ ٢١ شهر رمضان سنة ٢١ جلوس والا

6.

شاء جهان جهان آرا عليه العاليه

الله اكبر

زبدة الاماثل و الاقران لابق العنايت و الاحسان راجه بدة پركاش بعنايت امیدوار بوده بدانند ، عرضه داشتی که معه بیشکش باز و شهد مرسولنموده بودید رسیده از نظر قیض اثر ما گذشت باز چوز بود عوض کرده گرفتیم و شهد نيز پسند طبع افتاد ديگو از مفسدي و متبودي زميندار سري نگو که معروض فموده بوديد هميشه ميان شما و او عداد ميگذرد و از بد بختي خود باز نمي آيد خوب کودید که این مقدمه را بجناب مقدس معلی عرضداشت نمودید و هقیقت باریدن برف و کوتاهی نمودن عبد الرحمن داروغه در گرد آوری برف و اجوره مزدوران که عوض نموده بودید معلوم رای عالم آرای گردید ـ بموصي اليه نشان عاليشان بتاكيد تمام فرستادة شد كه گرد آوري برف بواقعي بكند و اجورة مزدوران موافق قرار داد ميرسانيدة باشد - و اگر مثل سالكذشته كوتاهى خواهد كود نتيجه نيك نخواهد يافت *

تحريراً في القاريخ بست و ينجم مالا محرم سنه سم

1.

In the name of God, the merciful and compassionate. The best of his equals and contemporaries, deserving of favour and kindness, Raja Budh Parkāsh may know that his 'arzdāsht together with several animals and a basket of pomegranates have been received and shown to us by the women of our holy threshold. As to his requesting us to recommend him to His Majesty, the lord of the earth and the age, master of the house and of the dweller thereof, and the means of comfort to the world, he is informed that as His Majesty, the protector of kings, is at Akbarabad, the seat of the Caliphate, and we are here, we cannot comply with his wishes at present. He may know that we shall always attend to his affairs. Dated 16th Jumada II, the 13th year of the Julus.

2.

The best of his equals and contemporaries, deserving of favour and kindness, submissive to Islam, Raja Budh Parkāsh may know that his 'arzdāsht together with myrobalans, some pomegranates, zedoary, a golden-winged bird, and musk have been received and shown to us by the women of our high household. We desire him to procure another golden-winged bird and send it to us. A khil'at has been conferred upon him and will shortly reach him. He may know that we shall always attend to his affairs. Dated 11th Shawwal, the 14th year of the Julus.

3.

In the name of God, the merciful and compassionate.

The best of his equals and contemporaries, deserving of favour and kindness, submissive to Islam, Raja Budh Parkāsh may know that his 'arzdāsht together with some pods of musk and a flapper (chanwar) have been received and shown to us by the women of our great household. The presents have met with our approval. He writes about the misconduct of Sondha-and others of his tahwildars saying, that the zamindars of the parganahs of Sadhora at first stoodsureties for them, but afterwards helped them run away with cash and property; and requesting us to send illustrious farmans to Ruhu-l-lah Khān, Faujdar of Mian-i-doab, Dawar Khān, Faujdar of Sahrand, and Ali Akbar, Amin-i-faujdar of the parganah of Sadhora, ordering them to arrest the tahwildars and zamindars. In our opinion the addressee was wrong in trusting the zamindars. As we do not interfere in such matters, he had better write an 'arzdāsht

to His Majesty, the protector of kings, on the subject. Ruhu-lah Khān and others will not take any action until His Majesty is informed of the affair. Dated 21st Rabi II, the 18th year of the Julus.

4.

GOD IS GREAT.

The best of his equals and contemporaries Raja Budh Parkāsh, while expecting favour from us, may know that his several 'arzdāshts together with two boxes of snow have been received and shown to us. He writes that the snow belongs to the Royal store and that it was sent by Sayvid Shafi and Bhori. We have not yet heard from them on the subject. The snow was very dirty and a large portion of it was melted. From this it appears that the snow was not taken from our store. The zamindar of Garhwal writes to say that it is he who sent the snow. God knows who really sent it. As to the addressee requesting us to ask His Majesty to do justice in the dispute between him and the Raja of Garhwal, we spoke to His Majesty on the subject. Accordingly His Majesty repeatedly ordered the Bakhshis to write a hasbu-l-hukm to the effect that whoever was aggressive, would be severely punished. The zamindar of Garhwal states that he has never been aggressive, that the land under dispute has been in the possession of his family from ancient times, that it was taken from him by force, and that now that he has got an opportunity, he has recovered it. How different his version of the case is from that of the addressee! Until His Majesty deputes an Amin to inquire into the case and is informed of the true facts thereof, he will not consent to troops being sent to settle it. Moreover, as it is necessary to send expeditions towards the Deccan and Kabul, we do not think that troops can be spared for any other purpose. Dated 7th Jumada I, the 21st year of the Julus.

5.

GOD IS GREAT.

The best of his equals and contemporaries, deserving of favour and kindness, Raja Budh Parkash may know that his 'arzdāsht together with some pods of musk and a basket of pomegranates have been received and shown to us by the women of our high household: we were extremely pleased with the musk that he first sent us. We therefore desire him to procure some more and send it to us. He should see

that the article is genuine and not imitation. We assure him that we shall always attend to his affairs. Dated 21st Ramazan, the 21st year of the Julus.

6.

GOD IS GREAT.

The best of his equals and contemporaries, deserving of favour and kindness. Raja Budh Parkash may know that his 'arzdasht together with a falcon and some honey have been received and shown to us. As the falcon was too young, we exchanged it for an (older) one. The honey met with our approval. As to the turbulent zamindar of Srinagar between whom and the addressee there is always war, the addressee has done well to bring the matter to the notice of the high and holy Presence. We have understood what he says regarding the quantity of the snowfall there, the dilatoriness of Abdu-r-Rahman, the Daroghah, in collecting snow and the wages of the labourers. An illustrious farman has consequently been sent to the said Daroghah ordering him to collect snow diligently and telling him that the wages of the labourers will be paid according to the agreement, and that if he is remiss in collecting snow, as he was last year, he shall suffer the consequences. Dated 25th Muharram, the 23rd year of the Julus.

Serial No.	Date of the Firman according to the year of the accession.	The name of the Emperor grant- ing the Firman.	The name of the Raja to whom the Firman is	Subject.	REMARKS.
5	7th Jam- adi ul- Awwal 21	Jahanara, daughter of Shah Jahan.	Raja Budh Prakash.	Received two boxes of snow. The snow is not good. The Zamindar of Garhwal says that he sent them. God alone knows who sent them. Your complaint against the aggressions of the Zamindar of Garhwal was brought to the notice of the emperor. His Majesty says that the aggressors will surely be punished. He says that his ancestral property was seized and hence getting a suitable opportunity he has recovered it. So long as a special Amin is not sent the emperor cannot forman opinion. The army is required for active service in Kabul and the Deccan in these days, and hence it is difficult to send an army anywhere else.	
7	25th Muharram 43	do.	do.	Your application with peshkash, hawk and honey duly received. The hawk was young and hence exchanged. The honey is also liked. You speak of the aggressions of the Zamindar of Srinagar, but it appears there is a long-standing enmity between you and him. He does not mend his ways. You have acted rightly in bringing the case to the notice of the Emperor. We have	

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Serial No.	Date of the Firman according to the year of the accession.	The name of the Emperor grant- ing the Firman.	The name of the Raja to whom the Firman is issued.	Subject.	BEMARKS.
				come to know about the fall of snow and the laziness of Abdul Rahman in collecting snow and paying remuneration to labourers. He has been informed that he should collect snow largely and continue to send it to us. If he acts lazily like last year, it will be not well for him.	
2	16th Ja- madi-us- Sani. 13	Jehanara, daughter of Shah Jehan.	Raja Budha Prakash.	Acknowledges the receipt of some animals, pomegranates, etc. Informs him that the Emperor is at Akbarabad and his requests therefore could not be brought to His Majesty's notice.	
8	lith Shaw-wal 14	do.	do.	Acknowledges the receipt of yellow myrobolan, sour pomegranates, zedoary (a spicy plant), white cock and musk: and informs him that a Khillat of honor has been granted him. Directs him to send another white * cock. (* The original has Zarin. It may mean white or golden).	
6	21st Ram- zān, 41.	do.	do.	Acknowledges the receipt of musk and pomegranates. Orders him to send genuine and first-class musk.	

Serial No.	Date of the Firman according to the year of the accession.	The name of the Emperor grant- ing the Firman.	The name of the Raja to whom the Firman is issued.	Subject.	Breaks.
4	21st Rabi-us- sani, 18	Jahanara, daughter of Shah Jahan.	Raja Budh Prakash.	Acknowledges the receipt of musk and chauri. 'It appears from your letter that Sondha, etc., with the help of the zamindars of Sadhaura have absconded. We can not interfere in such imperial matters. You had better write to the Emperor. So long as the Emperor's orders are not issued on the subject, Ruh Allah Khan and others will never arrest them.'	V
1	14th Zol·Hij 12			'We cannot go to the Darbar owing to illness. Your application has been sent to Jafar Khan Madar-ul-Muham for disposal. Postins will be sent during the winter.'	The writer's name is not known because it is half torn off. There are no seals, etc.

32. Errata, etc., in the A.S.B. Edition of Abu Turab's History of Gujarat, Calcutta 1909.

By H. BEVERIDGE.

Dr. Denison Ross has conferred a boon on all who are interested in Indian history by his edition of Abū Turāh's work. It is quite a new source for the history of Gujarāt. Apparently the British Museum MS. Or. 1818, Rieu, Cat. III. 967, is unique. It is one of the many manuscripts that we owe to that devoted scholar Sir Henry Elliot, the tablet to whose memory is one of the ornaments of Winchester Cathedral. Dr. Denison Ross's edition has been prepared from a copy of the B.M. MS. made for him by Ḥājī 'Abdul Majīd of Baghdad.

The copyist was evidently a good scholar, but as he had only one manuscript to work from, and that not free from wormholes, some mistakes have occurred. Possibly too there are some printer's errors in the edition. As I regard Abū Turāb's work as of much importance, I have collated the imprint with the B.M. MS., and have here set down all the misreadings which are likely to embarrass a reader or a translator. I have also made a few remarks on what seemed to be obscure passages.

Page 2, l. 3. For غلطت read علظت. Page 5, l. 4. In the first line of couplet, for مائلة دنيا بائد read شائديائد. The copyist has mistaken the hamza for a nūn, and Dr. Ross has justly remarked on the obscurity of the couplet. When we read, however, as we should do, Shādīabād-i-dil the couplet becomes quite intelligible. It was composed in praise of Bahādur Gujarāti's father Sultan Mozaffar II, and celebrates his generosity in restoring the kingdom of Mālwa to Sultan Maḥmūd Khiljī after the officers of the latter had dispossessed and imprisoned him. This couplet may be translated:—

"Thy Court is the happy home of the afflicted, Whate'er thou takest, thou restorest.

The chronogram which precedes, yields 929 A.H., which corresponds to 1523. There is a much more difficult couplet at p. 25. The copy, however, is correct: it is only the enigmatic meaning which is obscure. It seems that Ikhtiyar Khān, Bahādur's governor of Chāmpānīr, had a reputation for making versified riddles. This one he is said to have made when Humāyūn offered him his choice between taking service

under him, or of returning to Bahadur. The Mirat Sikandari. see Fazl Ullah's translation, p. 196, gives a different account of the circumstances under which the enigma was composed, but both it and Abū Turāb's work agree that the couplet contains an allusion to Humāyūn's name, and perhaps to its numerical value according to abjad. But neither of these works, nor the translator Fazi Ullah, explains how the abjad is effected, and I have failed to understand the point. I can only suppose that Mah "the Moon" in the second line is an anagram of "Humā" which is the essential part of Humāyūn's name. This view is corroborated by another specimen of Ikhtiyar-Khān's enigmas which is given at p. 195 of Fazl Ullah's translation. (Page 252 of the Bombay ed. of the Persian text of the "Mirāt S.") There the enigma seems to consist of a bad pun on the name Jamal. Garcin de Tassy in his work on "Oriental Rhetoric and Prosody," 2nd ed., Paris 1873, remarks on the obscurity of the department of oriental prosody which relates to Mu'amma, riddles.

Page 12, l. 21; see p. 74, three ll. from foot—سعن Base. This is the Vasha of Bates' Hindi dictionary, p. 661, col. 2, and the Vasā of Sanskrit dictionaries. It means a woman, and etymologically has the same meaning as the Arabic مُنْفِيْفُةُ a'šfa, i.e. weak, or subdued.

Page 13, 6 ll. from foot—sii Chaghta. Dr. Ross remarks that this word has the appearance of incorrectness. But it has

been correctly copied. See infra.

Page 14, 10 ll. from foot—sahsālah chapar nīz yāft. These words occur also in the B.M. MS and are unintelligible. Dr. Ross takes chapar to be the Hindi word chaprī meaning "bran." Mr. Irvine, R.A.S.J. for April 1910, p. 511, suggests that it stands for chhappar "a thatch," and would translate" grass three years old from thatches." Neither explanation seems quite satisfactory. Possibly gāh-i-sahsālah (there is an izāfat after gāh) should be gāh-i-sipahsālār "the straw for the Commander-in-Chief," or, what I think is more likely, the proper reading may be gāh-e-sah sālah u chhappar chīz yāft, that is, "straw three years old, and that from thatches were precious." But it is all very doubtful. See infra.

Page 16, 5 ll. from foot, Farghali is perhaps right enough. It is the Arabic form of Parghali. He was Humāyun's Pir and is frequently mentioned in the Akbarnāma and the Tārīkh Rashīdī. He was drowned at Chausā. See Akbarnāma, text,

1. 133, where there is also the reading Pir 'Ali.

Page 17, l. 8. A line has been accidentally omitted here. After چتررکه *Chitorke* there should be inserted الحال از دست کفار etc. پتروکه (etc. بر او ارزانی باشد تامایان رفته اورا (بصلع etc., "Chitor,

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which has just been freed from the infidels, should be given to him in order that we may go (and bring him to terms).

Page 18, 6 ll. from foot. For اورنکی read اورنکی 'Uzbegi, 'an Uzbeg''; compare Akbarnāma I, translation, p. 305.

Page 18, 3 ll. from foot. For an read san.

Page 18, 2 ll. from foot. After Sultan insert 4.

Page 19, l. 3. For \$5 read 35 "two."

Page 19, 4 ll. from foot. For الله المعالمة أنشها read الله أنشها ātiehhā. It refers to Humāyūn's ordering that the burning of the houses in Chāmpānīr should be stopped.

Page 20, l. 11. For کوپیری read "an old woman." Page 20, last line. For کشته read گشته gashta sirhā. It means

"in a confused state": see Vullers II, 283 col. b, and 282 col. b.

Page 27, l. 3. ون لشكر Sūn is either a mistake or a variant for سات sān, a well-known word for a review of troops. See Vullers II, 194a, and P. De Courteille's Dict. 341, and Bābur's Memoirs, Ilminsky ed., p. 127, 9 ll. from foot. The Hyd. ed, p. 103b, line 7, has as the word for a review dīm, or vīm. Perhaps dīm is the Persian word for face and so dīm kūrdūlār might mean "a seeing of faces," that is, an inspection. Sūn occurs again in Abū Turāb, p. 44, l. 4.

Page 33, 1. 7. For فوق read قوتى.

Page 33, last line. For yet read , read

Page 35, 1. 3. For مكرر read مكر.

Page 39, 3 ll. from foot. For ead e1.

Page 40, top line. Insert conjunction, before alhāl.

Page 40, 4 ll. from foot. Insert hamza after saped and delete conjunction. The passage is obscure. I do not know what $b\bar{a}d$ saped means here.

Page 43, 1. 4. For بضبام read . .

Page 49, l. 3. كَالْعُكَانِ unintelligible. Dr. Ross has also noted passage. Perhaps it should be كساله kasāla "causing affliction." The expression occurs again p. 85, l. 11.

Page 50, l. 9. سياة يك unintelligible.

Page 50, 4 ll. from foot. Here the copyist has deviated from his original which has quite clearly گرستش gostash, which I take to be for رُستُنْ 'his flesh.'' The passage is, I think, goshtash ba yaz kandand, "They tore his flesh with thorns.''

Page 53, 1. 7 from foot. For مثام هات should apparently be read تامه هاء tāṣa shām, the wretched (Mīrzās).

Page 54, last line. For بولى, that is, Ba Wali-al-Haqq; the tashdid has been wrongly made into the dots of a ta,

Page 60, l. 14. For سنيد read يسنيد Istid. Compare Istada just above. The passage means, "Dont you stand."

Page 64, l. 8. Though Man Sen agrees with original, it should be Man Singh.

Page 75, last line. جهامى اينرا should apparently be جهامى اينرا Page 83, l. 3. For جهاز جنس read جهاز جنس. The mistake is important for it makes a remark of A. T.'s unintelligible. What he says is that he was convinced that the siege of Aḥmadabad by the rebels would be unsuccessful, for there were four discordant parties among the besiegers, viz. lst, Ikhtiyāru-l-Mulk and all the Gujaratis; 2nd, the Mīrzās (Moghuls); 3rd, the Afghans; 4th the Abyssinians.

Page 83, l. 13. For باخود read باخود. Also delete word after dashtand.

Page 34, l. 3. For قريب read قريب.

Page 84, 6 ll. from foot. Is an important passage as it gives us the name of 'Umar Khān Lod' the father of the famous Daulat Khān whom A. T. calls the Vakil of 'Azīz Koka. See Blochmann 502, 'Umar Khān then was the grandfather of the still more famous Khān Jahān Lodi of Jahāngīr and Shāh Jahān's time.

Page 99, top line. For 19F read 1FF.

Page 99, l. 3. For کنند read گنبد.

Page 99, l. 10. For گنبد read گنبد.

Page 103, l. 6. For اوسه read اوسه.

Page 108, last line. Apparently the word basababahar is, as suggested by Dr. Ross, a mistake for basihā "woman."

ADDENDA.

Page 32, line 16. My friend Mr. Whiteway has shown me a passage in a book on Portuguese ships in the 15th and 16th centuries in which, at p. 11, a distinction is drawn between the two Portuguese words barca and barcha. The latter is clearly the barsha of Abū Turāb. The book is by a Portuguese naval officer named Lopes de Mendonea and is entitled: "Estudos sobre Navios Port," etc.

Page 13, 1. 18—چفته. This word has been correctly copied, and is, I think, right. It means, apparently, that the man

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called Khurāsān Khān was a native of Chaghatai or Jagatai in Khurāsan. I find that in Colonel Stewart's map of Khurāsan published in the Royal Geographical Society's Journal for 1881, and reproduced, on a reduced scale, in "Through Persia in disguise," 1911, Jaghata is the name of a village in northern Khurāsān, and that also there is a range of mountains called the Jaghatai mountains.

Page 14, l. 14. It seems not improbable that Dr. Denison Ross's suggestion of *chapri* "bran" is the right one, for I see that Dr. Aitchison in his account of the Botany of the Afghan border, Transactions of the Linnean Society, 1887, says p. 5, "The fodder supplied to us for our cattle consisted of the crushed straw of wheat and barley, and of the stems of millet." *Chapri* might represent "Crushed straw." But the passage is still somewhat of a riddle.

JULY, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 5th July, 1911, at 9-15 p.m.

D. HOOPER, Esq., F.C.S., F.A.S.B., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Maulavi Abdul Wali, Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. A. C. Atkinson, Mr. P. Brown, Mr. B. De, Dr. L. L. Fermor, Mr. F. H. Gravely, Mr. K. A. K. Hallowes, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Mr. J. Insch, Mr. S. W. Kemp, Mr. W. Kirkpatrick, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana.

Visitors:—Mrs. Fermor, Captain R. B. Seymour Sewell, I.M.S., and others.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Twenty presentations were announced:-

The General Secretary reported the death of Acharya Satyavrata Samasrami, an Honorary Member of the Society.

Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana read the following obituary notice:—

Acharyya Satya Vrata Samasrami (A.D. 1846-1911).

Pandit Satyavrata Samasrami was born in Patna on the 28th May, 1846. His father Babu Ramdas Chatterji held several responsible posts under the British Government in Monghyr and Patna, and had considerable landed property. To help the introduction of Vedic learning in Bengal, he removed his family to Benares and placed his son, eight years old, under the instruction of Gauda Svāmi, the head of the Sarasvatī Matha, and of Pandit Nandaram Trivedi. Satyavrata completed his studies in 1866 and received the title of "Samasrami", or "scholar of the Sāma Veda", from the Maharaja of Bundi with the consent of the distinguished Pandits of his court.

Then the young Vedic scholar with about a hundred pupils spent the following two years in travel, visiting various holy places of Northern India, among which may be mentioned Ayodhya, Kanauj, Kampilla, Jeypur, Naimisharanya, Hurdwar, Guzrat, and Kashmere.

Returning to Benares in 1868, he married the grand-daughter of Pandit Brajanath Vidyāratna, the leading Smarts of Navadvipa. In 1870, he commenced to edit a Journal under the name of Pratna Kamra Nandini for the publication of

Vedic works. At the instance of Raja Dr. Rajendralala Mitra in the same year he was engaged by the Asiatic Society of Bengal to edit the Sama Veda Samhita for the Bibliotheca Indica. After the death of his father, he brought his family from Benares to Calcutta and applied himself to the diffusion of Vedic learning in Bengal. At his residence he kept pupils and gave them free board and tuition. He contributed to Bibliotheca Indica a new edition of the Nirukta. In 1889, he commenced publishing a new Vedic Journal, the Usha. contributed also to the Bibliotheca Indica an edition of Aitareya Brāhmaņa, Taittirīva Samhitā and Satapatha Brāhmana. From his own press he published in Bengali character the Samaveda, the Yajurveda and several Brahmanas and Vedangas. Besides his editions of Sanskrit works of Poetry and Philosophy, and his original Compositions in the Sanskrit and Bengali languages, he edited a Buddhist work, Kāranda Vyūha, with a Bengali translation by himself as well as a few of the Jaina Scriptures.

As a Vedic scholar he was without a rival in Bengal, and carried out his father's idea of reviving Vedic learning in the land of his birth. He was an Honorary Member of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. He was appointed examiner in connection with the Government Sanskrit Title Examinations in Bengal. To give effect to the New Regulations of the Calcutta University he was appointed University lecturer and

an examiner in the Vedas

After suffering from Apoplexy for about six months he breathed his last on the first of June last, leaving a brother, three sons and a large circle of pupils and admirers to mourn his loss.

The following eight gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Pandit Shyam Bihari Misra, B.A., Revenue Member; Council of Regency, Jodhpur, proposed by Mr. Ramavatar Pande, I.C.S., seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Major H. J. Williams, King's Dragoon Guards, Ambala, Panjab, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Prince Mohamed Bukhtyar Shah, C.I.E., of Mysore family, No. 6, Loudon Street, Calcutta, proposed by Maulavi Abdul Wali, seconded by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott; Lieut. Sureswar Sarkar, I.M.S., Fort William, proposed by Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., seconded by Dr. U. N. Brahmachari; Dr. Prabhas Nath Pal, L.M.S., Medical Practitioner, 4 Bibi Rozio's Lane, Calcutta, proposed by Dr. B. N. Ghose, seconded by Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.; Capt. R. B. Seymour Sewell, I.M.S., proposed by Dr. N. Annandale, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Mr. Nirmal Chandra Sen, M.A., Barrister at-Law, Judge, Small Cause Court, Calcutta, proposed by the Hon.

Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, seconded by Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Sastri; Capt. E. Owen Thurston, F.R.C.S., I.M.S., Calcutta, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S., seconded by Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.

Dr. N. Annandale exhibited a very large snake of Genus Büngarus forwarded by Major O. A. Smith, and said:

"I have been asked by our Honorary Secretary to exhibit this specimen, which was killed at Hazaribagh in Chota Nagpur. It is an unusually large representative of the Common Krait, now measuring 4 feet 41 inches, although I understand it measured 4 feet 62 inches fresh. The record specimen of the species measured 4 feet 6½ inches (vide Wall, Poisonous Terrestrial Snakes of our British Indian Dominions, 2nd Ed., p. 24, 1908), whether fresh or in spirit is not stated. I take this opportunity to make a few remarks about an allied species, B. sindanus, Boulenger, distinguished from the Common Krait by its (usually) larger size and by the fact that it has seventeen or nineteen rows of lateral and dorsal scales instead of fifteen. This species was described in 1898, and was for long believed to be peculiar to Sind. Some years later, however, Major F. Wall named another so-called species B. walli, although it differed little from B. sindanus, of which only a few specimens were then known, except in colour and in the number of ventral and subcaudal scales, both variable characters. On the evidence then available it might have been thought possible that B. walli was an eastern race of B. sindanus peculiar to the valley of the Ganges, but Major Wall has recently demolished this evidence by describing from Baluchistan specimens much nearer B. sindanus than the pseudo-species B. walli in scale characters (Journ. Bombay Nat. Hist. Soc., XX, p. 1040, 1911). He would still maintain the latter as a distinct species on the ground that it differs slightly in colour, form of body and maximum size, but these are not characters which can in any circumstance be regarded as intrinsically of specific importance in the Ophidia. I believe, therefore, that B. walli is merely a synonym of B. sindanus, and that the species which must be known by the latter name extends all over Northern India from Baluchistan to Lower Bengal, perhaps avoiding the damper parts of the country."

The following papers were read:—

1. The Belkhara Inscription and the Machlishahr Grant. — By R. D. BANERJI.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

2. The Stambhesvari.—By B. C. MAZUMDAR. Communicated with a note by R. D. BANERJI.

exvi Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [July, 1911.]

- 3. The Rubaiyat of Abu Said ion Abul Khayr, No. 2.—By MAULAVI ABDUL WALL.
- 4. The Ghagrahati (Kotwalipara) Grant and three other Copperplate Grants.—By F. E. PARGITER, M.A.

These three papers will be published in a subsequent number of the *Journal*:

5. Phosphorus in Indian Food-Stuffs.—By D. HOOPER.

This paper has been published in the Journal for June 1911.

6. Folk Songs and Folk-Lore of the Gehara (Kanjars).—By W. KIRKPATRICK.



The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 12th July, 1911, at 9-30 p.m.

LT.-COLONEL F. P. MAYNARD, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. U. N. Brahmachari, Dr. Adrian Caddy, Col. J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. C. H. Elmes, Dr. Indumadhab Mallick, Captain E. Owen Thurston, I.M.S., Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors:—Dr. H. N. Das, Dr. H. M. Mackenzie, Dr. H. D. Shastri.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

- 1. A case of complete destruction of half of the upper jaw by Canerum Oris, occurring in an attack of Acute Fever of unknown origin—shown by Dr. Caddy.
- 2. A demonstration of Ophthalmological instruments by Lieut. Col. F. P. Maynard.
 - 3. The following papers were read:-

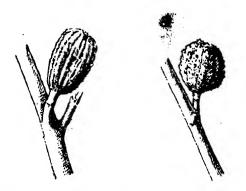
A Note on Salvarsan in the treatment of Kala Azar was read by Major E. E. Waters.

Major Waters' paper was discussed by Dr. Brahmachari, Lt.-Col. Calvert, Dr. Elmes and Capt. Megaw.

The seasonal prevalence of Anopheline Fuligenosus in Calcutta. By Dr. U. Brahmachari, M.D.

The second state of the second state of the second
33. Corchorus capsularis var. oocarpus—a new variety of the common jute plant.

By I. H. BURKILL and R. S. FINLOW.



On the left is the fruit of the variety here described: on the right fruit of the type for comparison. Both natural size.

We describe here a variety of the common jute plant, which was detected by one of us (R. S. F.) a year ago (1910), among the jute crops of south-eastern Mymensingh, and which has, since then, been studied in cultivation. Its local name is Baupât and it differs from the type in the elongation of its fruit, as figured above. It does not differ in other respects; even having the same number of seeds as has the type. It appears to be about midway between early and late as regards its time of ripening, being, in the latter respect, as well as in size and colour, rather similar to the races Barapāt and Parbatya of Mymensingh. The cultivators seem to keep it pure and they regard it as the best race for cultivation on higher lands, which are not deeply inundated during the rainy season.

One authority has held that Corchorus capsularis so varies in fruit as to render its distinctness from the long-fruited C. olitorius doubtful. To that statement our work lends no support: the two species we hold are conspicuously different in fruit, as well as in flower and foliage; and though var. occurpus

Watt, Commercial Products of India, 1908, p. 406; and in Journal of the Royal Society of Arts, 1vi, 1908, p. 264.

l Vide our "Races of Jute," in the Agricultural Ledger, No. 6 of

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five producing two shoots. The distribution of the shoots was found to be as in the following diagram:—

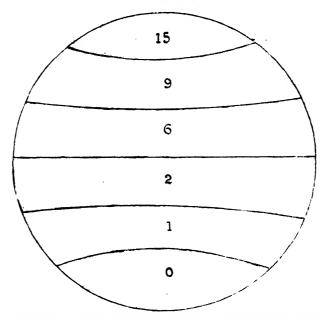


Diagram of bulbil, giving the position of the shoots, adaxillary pole uppermost.

The single shoot in the fifth belt was the second shoot on a tuber which had produced a shoot near the adaxillary pole, and so also was one of the two in the fourth belt.

Second series of Observations.

On March 29th, 1911, twenty-six of the bulbils were out transversely at the equator into approximately equal halves, and the halves were put, the cut surface downwards, onto a porous tile standing in a little water.

On the 12th of May, eighteen of the halved bulbils had started to grow, nine of them from both halves and nine from

one half only.

The 8 bulbils which had not grown at all, were among the smallest; and some of them had undoubtedly suffered from partial dessication. Of the nine which had produced shoots from one half only, 7 had produced them from the adaxillary half, and 2 from the abaxillary half.

31 shoots in all had been produced by the 27 half bulbis which had started to grow, i.e., some had produced more than

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one shoot, 3 in the case of one adaxillary half, two in the case of another adaxillary half, and 2 in the case of one abaxillary half.

Thus there were :-

20 shoots from adaxillary halves, 11 shoots from the abaxillary halves.

The adaxillary halves had put out shoots more freely than the abaxillary halves.

Dividing the bulbils into belts as before, the distribution of the shoots may be represented diagrammatically thus:—

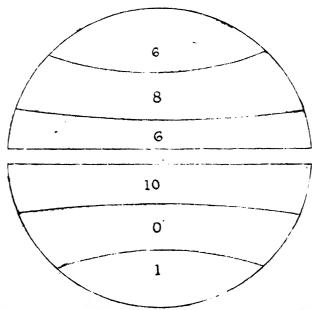


Diagram of halved bulbils, giving the position where the shoots arose, adaxillary pole uppermost.

The reader will notice how freely on the lower half the shoots were formed in the belt next to the cut surface. As a matter of fact they were generally very close to the cut. I have conducted no experiments to determine how far the moisture of the tile was responsible for this, and how far we have in it a wound stimulus. But it is evident that the bulbil has a tendency to put out new shoots from the adaxillary half, just as the terrestrial tuber of Dioscorea bulbifera, when starting its new year's growth, similarly puts forth its shoots close to the pole whereby it was attached to its parent.

35. Translation of an Historical Poem of the Emperor Shah 'Alam II.

By Professor M. HIDAYAT HUSAIN.

The following poem was written by the Emperor Shāh 'Alam II of Dehli (takhallus Aftāb) after he had been deprived of sight by the treacherous Rohila Chief Chulām Qādir Khān, son of Zābit Khān, and grandson of Najīb ad-Dawla. After extorting all the sums he could from his royal master, the traitor ordered his Rohilas to pluck out the impoverished Emperor's eyes. This tragic event took place on the 7th of Zī'l Qa'da, A.H. 1292 (A.D. 1788). He then placed on the throne Bīdār Bakht, son of Aḥmad Shāh, and grandson of Muhammad Shāh.

TRANSLATION.

1. A storm of misfortune arose for my humiliation, And scattered to the winds all my sovereignty.

2. I was the sun in the sky of royal sublimity,
But my black deeds alas! have brought it to the dusk of
decline.

3. Good it is that the Sky has plucked out my eyes. So that I do not see another ruling in my place.

4. A son of an Afghān gave to the winds the grandeur of my sovereignty.

Who but the Holy One can lend me a helping hand?

 The golden wealth of this world was to me as a lifeconsuming malady,
 But through the Grace of God this malady has been cast

from me.

6. I must have sinned grievously to have thus been punished, But it is 1 known that Heaven will pardon all sinning.

7. He that destroyed me, had been my minister for thirty years,

Swiftly have my wrongs to others reaped their reward.

8. Promises and oaths made my friends, but treacherously they acted.

Well indeed have my friends shown their sincerity.

9. I gave milk to and nurtured the young of a snake; In the end it girt itself to suck my blood.

¹ This refers to the promise of salvation made by the Prophet to those who suffer for their sins in this world.

 Of my provision for my children, gathered by thirty years' toil,
 I was plundered and stripped—of all I possessed.

 Mughal and Afghan, one and all, tricked me, Did they not suffer me to be taken into captivity.

This beggar's son from Hamadan (surely will he go to Hell)—
 He it was who broke my heart by his cruelties.

13. Gul Muḥammad, a Marwān l in wickedness,

Was the instrument that brought affliction upon me.

 Also Ilāhyār, Sulaimān, and Badal Beg the damned, All three girt up their loins to cast me into captivity.

15. Ah! may Timūr,² who is of my blood, Hasten soon to my assistance!

Madhujī Sindhiā, my "'arzand-i-jigarband" (beloved son),
 Is busy righting the wrongs done to me.

17. Asaf ad Dawla and the English are my counsellors; Would it be a wonder if they came to my assistance?

 Rājās, Rāos, and Zamīndārs, all, rich and poor, It were iniquity did they not feel my griefs.

19. Of the beauties of my court, my fond companions, No one save Maḥal ⁸ Mubārak has stayed to serve me.

20. "Aftāb"! To-day I have seen misfortune from the Sky! Perhaps to-morrow God may restore me my sovereignty.

ال صرصور حادث به برخاست پئ خواري ما داد برباد سرو برگ جهان داري ما كدر الله برد برد برگ جهان داري ما برد در شام زوال آلا سدید كاري ما برد در شام ما كندلا شد از دست فلك بهتر شد قا ند بیایدم كند غیر جهان داري ما كدا افغان بیگ شوكت شاهي برباد كیست جسزذات مبارا كه كند یاري ما بود جانكالا زر و مال جهان همچو مرض دفع از فضل آلهي شدلا بیماري ما

¹ His full name is Marwan bin al-Hakam, and he died in A.H. 65 (A.D. 685). He is notorious in Islamic literature for his treacherous deeds.

² This refers to Shāh Timūr, son of Shāh Abdālf, brother-in-law of Shāh 'Ālam, and ruler of Kābul.

⁸ This was the title of the chief wife of Shah 'Alam.

كودة بسوديم گذاهسي كه سؤايسش ديديم هست معروق که بخشد گلهگاری ما كسودة سي سال نظارت كه موا داد بباد 7. زودتر يافده باداش سنسكاري مسا عهد و پسیسمان به میان داده نمودند دفسا 8. مخلصان خوب نهودند وفاداري ميا شی- و دادم افعی و سی را پروردم 9. عاقبت بست كمر از يسم خونخواري مسا حق طفلان که به سي سال فواهم کرديم 10. اسرده تساراج و نمودنه سبک باري مسا قدوم مغسلية و افغسان همه بسازي دادند 11. بسكمه كشتند معجوز به كرفتاري مسا ایس گدازادهٔ همسدان که به دوزخ بسرود 12. بانيء جورو ستم شد به دل انگاري مــا گل محمد که ز صروان به شوارت کم نیست 13. چه قدر کود وکالت پسئ ازاري مسا هم اله يار و سليمان و بدل بيگ لعين 14. هو سه بستنده کمو بهر گوفتهاری سا شاو تیم ور که دارد سر نسه ب با مس 15. زود باشد که بیاید به مددگاری مسا مادهرجي سيفدهيا فرزند جگربند من است 16. هست مصروف تلافي ستمكاري مسا اعسف الدولة و انگريسز كه دستسور من اند 17. چه عجب کر بغه ایده مددگاری مسا راجه و راو و زمیندار امیسو و چه فقیسر 18. حيف باشد كه نه سازند به فمخواري مــا نازنیدان پری چهسره که همسدم بودند 19. نیست جز معلمباری به پوستاری مـا آفتاب از فلسک امروز حوادث دیدیسم 20. بساز فردا دهد ایسرد سر سسوداری مسا

36. The Ghāgrāhāṭi (Koṭwālipāṛā) Grant and Three other Copper-Plate Grants.

By F. E. PARGITER, M.A.

Babu Rakhal Das Banerji has published in this Journal (Vol. VI, No. 8 for 1910, p. 429) an interesting description and reading of a copper-plate grant, which is dated in the reign of a king named Samācāradeva, and which was found in mauza Ghāgrahāti in the south-west corner of the Faridpur district in 1908. Dr. Bloch brought the grant to the notice of Dr. Hoernle and me towards the end of that year, when I was at Dr. Hoernle's request editing three copper-plate grants found in the same district some years previously: and we were informed that it would be published in the Indian Archæological Report. A photograph of it was sent me by the kindness of a friend in 1909, and I read it then for the purpose of obtaining information that might elucidate the three earlier grants. My article on those grants was published in 1910.1 The fourth grant has now been published in a fine copy and has been edited by Babu R. D. Banerji in this Journal as mentioned above 2—an event that I have awaited with much interest, as it enables me to comply with the Society's desire that I should write a paper dealing with these grants. three other grants are marked A, B and C in my article and will be cited by those marks in this paper. I may express my regret that this grant has been styled the "Kotwālipārā Grant," because Kotwālipārā is some two or three miles distant from where it was found. It is better to name it the "Ghāgrāhāti Grant," because it was found in Ghāgrāhāti, and presumably relates to land there as will appear further on.

I may begin by giving my reading and a translation of this fourth grant, because he has marked several words in his transcript as doubtful, and has not given us the benefit of a translation of it as he reads it. The plate published with his article and his reading of it have enabled me to correct my reading in three words, Pavittruko (l. 5), caru (l. 10) and krtya (l. 16), and the plate has enabled me to reconsider three difficult words, $vothy\bar{a}^\circ$ (l. 3), and $sa\dot{m}smrtya$ and $bh\bar{a}vya^\circ$ (l. 13); but in all other respects the reading that I made two years ago has not needed alteration, because the photograph sent me was an excellent one. As he makes no reference to my article on the three other grants, it seems he had not seen it

1 Indian Antiquary, vol. XXXIX, 1910, p. 193.

² It has also been published subsequently in the Rep. A.S.I. for 1907-8; see postscript.

when he published his article on this fourth grant. I had the advantage of seeing the photograph of this grant before I published my article, and a comparison of all the grants is

almost essential to an understanding of this grant.

It will be most convenient then, if I first give my reading of this grant with remarks explanatory of my reading, and a translation of the grant with notes explaining its meaning and object, and afterwards consider the validity of this grant with reference to the scrutiny which he has made of it, comparing throughout all matters in the four grants that bear upon and elucidate one another. I will give my transliteration of this grant in Roman characters, because they are more convenient than Devanāgarī letters, inasmuch as they permit of the words being separated and thus exhibited more clearly than is possible with the latter. Letters and marks enclosed in round brackets in the transcript are particulars, that have been omitted in the grant and should be added to make it correct.

TEXT.

First Side.

Svasty=Asyām=pṛthivyām=apratirathe Nṛga-Nahusa-Yayaty-Amvarisa-sama-

2 Mahārāj-âdhirāja-Sri-Samāçāradeve prata-

paty=etac-carana-karala-

3 yugal-ârādhan-ôpātta-Navyāvakāśikāyām suvarnnavothy-âdhikṛt-ântara-4

Uparika-Jivadattas Tad-anumoditaka-Vārakanga

mandale visaya-

pati-Pavittruko Yato (')sya vyavaharatah Supratikasvāminā jyesth-âdhi-

6 karanika - Dāmuka - pramukham - adhikaranam - visaya-

mahattara-Vatsa-

kunda - mahattara - Sucipālita - mahattara - Vihitaghosaśvarada(?)-

8 mahattara - Priyadatta² - mahattara - Janarddanakund-

âdayah anye ca

9 vahavah pradhānā vyavahā(ri)naś=ca vijñāptā 8 Icchāmy=aham bhavatā(m) prasā-

10 dāc=cirovasanna 4-khila-bhū-khandalakam sattra-pravarttaniya 5

11 vrāhman-ôpayogāva ca tāmra-pattī-krtya tad=arhatha prasāda(m) ka(r)ttu-

12 m=iti Yata enad=abhyarthanam=upalabhya Samthôparilikhit-â 6

¹ Read kamala.

² Read Priyadatta. 8 Read vijnaptā. • Read probably cir-dvasanna.

⁵ Read pravarttaniya. 6 Or perhaps ° likhit-ô. 7 Some aksaras are obliterated here, probably two.

Second Side.

nvair=vyavahāribhih samsmṛtya Sā ṣaṭā śvāpadair= justā rājño bhāvy-artha-nisphalā

vatsa bhogyi-krtā bhūmir_nrpasy-aiv-ârtha-dharm-14 ma-kṛ(t) Tad-asmai vrāhmaṇā(ya) dāyatām 1-i-

karanika-Nayanāga-Keśav-âdin-kula-15 tv=avadhrtva vārān=prakalpya prāk=tāmra-pattī-

krtya ² ksettra-kulya-vāpa-ttrayamm ⁸=apāsya 16 ghra-corako vac=chesam tac=catuh sima-

17 lingā -nirddistam krtv asva Supratīkasvāminah tāmra-pattī-kṛtya pratipādita(m)

18 Simā-lingāni c-âttrah Pūrvvasyām pisāca-parkkatti Daksinena Vidyā-19

dhara-jotikā Paścimāyām Candracampa-kota-kenah Uttarena 7 Go-

20 pendra-coraka 8 grāma-simā c-êti || Bhavanti c-âttra ślokah Sastim=yarsa-saha-

21 srāņi svarge modati bhūmi-dah Akseptā c-ânumantā cā 9 tāny=eva narake vaset l

22 Sva-da(t)tām=para-dattām=vā yo hareta vasūndharām sva-visthāyā(m) krmi(r) bhūtvā pitrbhi(h)

23 saha pacyate || Samvatsa 10 4 Kārtti di 1.

Remarks on the reading of the Text.

I will now discuss the points in which my reading differs from Babu R. D. Banerji's.

In the first place, this inscription makes no distinction between b and v, but has v in every case. He transcribes the v sometimes as b and sometimes as v; thus for instance, he transcribes the word vahavah (1. 9) as bahavah as it should be in correct Sanskrit. It is always desirable that a transcript should be accurate, but apart from that, this point is of some importance. The use of the character for v in all cases (whether the proper sound should be b or whether it should be v in correct Sanskrit), even in the word vrāhmaņa (ll. 11 and 14) shews that (subject to the qualification mentioned below) no distinction was ordinarily observed between these two letters, and that Sanskrit b's and v's were uniformly pronounced as b and written as v, in this part of the country when this inscription was composed. Hence it appears that two opposite changes had taken place, namely, the sound of v disappeared and was replaced by b, and the character for b disappeared

¹ Read diyatām.

² Krta- would make better grammar, but the meaning is clear.

⁸ Read ttrayam. 4 Read corake. Read linga. 7 Road uttarena. 8 Read corako. 6 Read o-attra.

⁹ Read ca, or perhaps vā.

and was replaced by that for v. These changes characterize Bengali at the present day, for it has not got the sound of v nor the character for b, and the sound of b is expressed by the character for v. This peculiarity then must be observed in transcribing this inscription; but this conclusion must be qualified by considering the value of the character for v when it is the last member of a compound consonant in a single word. I do not refer to cases, where v beginning a word follows a word ending in m and the two appear as mv in the plate, as in adhikaranamvisaya (l. 6), because there the conclusion would not be affected. Where v is compounded with a labial or r, as in Amvarīsa (l. 1), pūrvvasyām (l. 18) and samvatsa (1. 23), it had no doubt the sound of b; but when compounded with a dental, as in $krtv\bar{a}$ (l. 17), or with a sibilant, as in svāmin (11. 5 and 17) and svāpadair (1. 13), it could hardly have been pronounced as b and had probably the sound of w as in Sanskrit, for it could not have then acquired the indistinct sound which it has now in such compounds in Bengali. Thus it appears that in no position did the character for v have the sound of v, but was always pronounced as b except in certain compounds where it had the sound of w probably.

The other grants differ in this respect. The character for b is used in grant A in $labdh\bar{a}^{\circ}$ (l. 2), bappa (l. 6) and $br\bar{a}hman-asya$ (l. 8); and in grant B in $Ambar\bar{i}sa$ (ll. 1—2), $br\bar{a}hman\bar{a}$ (l. 11) and $br\bar{a}hman\bar{a}$ (l. 20). In grant C very much has been destroyed by corrosion, yet perhaps b occurs in $labdh\bar{a}^{\circ}$ (l. 2). The letter b was therefore distinguished in grants A and B, and perhaps in C; yet the above changes were developing then, because v is substituted for b in grant A in $Amvar\bar{i}sa$ (l. 1) and bravandhena (l. 12); and in grant C in bravandhena (l. 12). They had become completely established at the time of this grant.

In the next place it may be mentioned that Babu R. D. Banerji does not always transcribe as double the letters that are doubled in the inscription, for instance, the words Pavittruko (l. 5), sattra (l. 10), ksettra and trayam (l. 16), and câttrah (l. 18) appear in his transcript with the t single. In this connexion I may notice suvarna in l. 3. He transcribes it as suvarna, but reads it really as suvarna (p. 431), remarking there that da (that is, da) has two forms when occurring in the compound nda, namely, one form in suvarna and mandale (l. 4), and the other in (Vatsa)kunda (l. 7) and Janārddanakunda (l. 8). This seems to me to be a mistake, for the d in the last three words is the same (though not exactly identical, because no two written letters are ever exactly alike, and even the n is not identical in those three words), whereas in the first word there are unmistakable traces of a second n

¹ He writes Janarddaka; probably a clerical error.

written under the main n, so that the letter is really rnna. He rightly conjectures that this is what is meant (p. 434).

Some remarks may be made regarding the vowel signs in connexion with the word dhrtau (1. 2.), for that is the word as clearly shown in grants A and B. Babu R. D. Banerji writes it dhrtam, but there is a stroke to the left above the letter t, and as it is no part of dh or t it must be meant for a vowel mark, being written flat because there was hardly room to write it in its proper shape without running into the letter stya above it. The whole aksara then looks like to with a dot over it, and the dot is not, I think, anusvāra but represents the third stroke which goes to form the vowel au, for the following reasons. There is much laxity in the way in which vowel marks are written in this plate. The sign which denotes \bar{a} is written in various ways, and its chief modifications may be seen by comparing it in the words svadatām (l. 22), jā in rājā (l. 2), sīmā (l. 20), °opātta (l. 3), kundādayah (l. 8), pūrvvasyām (l. 18), navyā° (l. 3), and vārān (l. 15); but in one instance dācciro° (l. 10) it is reduced to what is practically a dot. There is a tendency, where a vowel sign consists of more than one stroke, to reduce one of the strokes to a dot. Accordingly the \bar{a} stroke which constitutes part of the vowel sign o is reduced practically to a dot in Pavittruko (l. 5), corako (l. 16) and kota (l. 19). Similarly the curl of the wowel sign i is replaced by a dot in almost every case, as is clearly seen in Supratika (1.5), sīmā (l. 20) and Kesavādīn (l. 15). It would be quite in accordance with this tendency then to turn one of the three strokes of au into a dot, and especially in dhrtau since there was hardly room to make the middle stroke properly because of the closeness of the letter stya above it.

I will now notice the other differences between my reading

and Babu R. D. Banerji's line by line.

Line 1. He writes prthivyam pratirathe, but the text has

prthivyam apratirathe clearly.

Line 3. He reads $v\bar{a}sy\bar{a}^\circ$, but the vowel sign over v consists of two strokes and cannot be \bar{a} . It seems to be meant for o, the stroke which should be turned to the left being turned here to the right, because there was hardly room to write it properly because of the closeness of the letter tye above it. The main part of the second aksara is th and not δ , as will be seen by a comparison of th in $prthivy\bar{a}m$ (l. 1), artha (l. 15), etc., with δ in $Sr\bar{s}$ (l. 2), $k\bar{a}\delta ik\bar{a}y\bar{a}m$ (l. 3), etc. The word appears therefore to be $vothy\bar{a}^\circ$. At the end of the line he has omitted ra.

Line 4 The letter ka between anumodita and $V\bar{a}raka$ is the termination of the former word. Many instances in which ka is added to verbal participles will be found in inscriptions, and $V\bar{a}raka$ is the province; see p. 487 below.

Line 5. He reads vyavahāratah, but the h has no vowel

mark \bar{a} and the word is vyavaharatah. It is however probably

amistake for vyavahāratah.

Line 7. He reads surada; the first letter however is not su which occurs in Sucipalita in this line, but is su as is seen in suradair (l. 13); though perhaps it may be intended for suradair (l. 13); though perhaps it may be intended for suradair (l. 19). The second letter resembles ra, but appears to have two dots on its left which suggest that it may be some other consonant unfinished; and further it seems to have some indistinct vowel marks above it. The third letter is much blurred; so much as is clear suggests da, but it may be some other consonant and seems to have r or m written over it. It transcribe it as surada, but feel certain it is really something different, though I cannot suggest any emendation.

Line 8. Babu R. D. Banerji reads Priyadatta, but the d has the vowel \bar{a} , and the word is really $Priyad\bar{a}tta$, though it should no doubt be Priyadatta. He reads $kund\bar{a}daya$, but there is a visarga after it, and the reading is $kund\bar{a}dayah$.

Line 9. I agree with him that vyavahānas is a mistake for vyavahārinas. It is merely a clerical error such as is common

in grants.

Line 10. The reading is not khandalaka but khandalakam, because there is an anusvāra above and a little to the right of the k. He reads pravarttanīya, but the word written is pravarttanīya, for the n is dental and its vowel is i and not i as will be seen on comparing these vowels in other words. The

word should be pravarttaniya.

Line 11. The reading is not $br\bar{a}hmanopay\bar{a}$ $g\bar{a}yaca$ but $vr\bar{a}hmanopayog\bar{a}ya$ ca, for the first y has clearly above it a leftward stroke which with the \bar{a} stroke forms o, though its significance is somewhat marred in that it joins the bottom of the letter nna in the line above. He reads tad arhaim $[ya]th\bar{a}$, but the words are tad arhatha, for the h has only a superscript r and not an anusvāra in addition, and the th has no vowel \bar{a} . Arhatha is the second person plural of the present tense of arh. He reads the last word as katra, but it is kattu. The difference between conjunct r and the vowel u is seen on comparing sattra (l. 10) with anumoditaka (l. 4) and catuh (l. 16), but the full curve of the u in kattu is marred because it is on the edge of the plate. The whole word (if we complete it by reading on into l. 12) is kattum iti, which is an error for karttum iti. There must be an infinitive here after the verb arhatha.

Line 12. The reading is not yata dhanad but yata enad, dh and e being much alike. Enad is the accusative case singular of etad in the neuter. He reads sam tho, but the word is samtho°, the sibilant being clearly s. This must be read with the following letters as samthoparilikhitā°, that is, samthā + uparilikhitā°. At the end of the line came some word, which began with \bar{a} (so as to produce °likhitā° by Sandhi), and had probably

two aksaras which have been obliterated, and finished with nuair in 1.13.

Line 13. This is the most difficult of all the lines as Babu R. D. Banerji has noted. The first two aksaras are more than nya vya° as he reads, for the nya has vowel marks above it and the vya appears to have a superscript r. The reading must be nyair vya°; and nyair is the final syllable of the word which has become obliterated at the end of 1. 12, and which is in the instrumental case plural agreeing with vyavahāribhih. Still if we read nya, it would be compounded with vyavahāribhih, and the meaning would be the same.

Next comes a difficult word which he reads as samantya, but the main portion of the second aksara in it is the same as the first, that is s in both cases. The third aksara is either tya or nya but has not enough strokes to be ntya. It appears to be tya if we compare it with tya at the beginning of line 15 and the shape of t in tac ca $^{\circ}$ (1.16). These inferences combined give sasatya. It will be seen from the subsequent remarks on the grammatical construction of II. 13 and 14, that this word must be an indeclinable past participle, and the termination ya shews that the root must be a compound one. The only preposition possible in this word is sam. Now the right limb of the first s is continued above the top of the letter into a small knob, which appears to represent anusvara; hence the first aksara is sam. In the middle of the second s is a thin perpendicular line which suggests that a compound consonant is intended, and if so, that can only be sm, and we may conjecture that the engraver erroneously incised only s instead of sm, and the mistake was corrected afterwards by inserting that middle line in order to make the character look as nearly like sm as was possible. Further under this sm there seems to be a faint trace as of the vowel r; but, whether that is real or not, there can be little doubt that the word intended was samsmṛtya. In support of this rendering it may be pointed out that no other indeclinable past participle (as far as I am aware) can be suggested which will satisfy both the script and the sense of this passage.

The remainder of this line and the greater part of 1.14 contain many difficulties, and the key to unlock them is found in the fact that the words between samemrtya (1.13) and tad

asmai (l. 14) compose a śloka.

He reads the first three aksaras of the śloka as $s\bar{a}pat\bar{i}$, but the last is $t\bar{a}$, and the form of $t\bar{i}$ is seen in $patt\bar{i}$ (Il. 11, 15 and 17). The second is not like any p in this inscription, for it has a bar along the whole of its top, whereas the general form of p is shown in the next word $sv\bar{a}padair$. This aksara must, it seems, be meant for sa, the middle horizontal bar of which has been carelessly blended with the wedge-shaped top and so gives the appearance of a continuous though not clean-cut

line along the top. Something of such carelessness may be seen in visaya (l. 6) and especially in chesam (l. 16). I read these three aksaras then as $s\bar{a}$ sat \bar{a} , and in explanation of sat \bar{a} would suggest that it is an irregular instrumental case of the numeral sas, 'six,' declined in the singular after the analogy of the higher numerals. The correct instrumental sadbhih would suit the metre perfectly, but might have been beyond the learning of the person who composed this grant, for the Sanskrit contains many errors. This suggestion has its difficulties, yet in support of it I may add that no other reading of the second character yields any sense. I may also point out that a similar irregular formation occurs in grant A in anaih (l. 22), which is probably meant for ebhih; and, as the correct word was apparently beyond the composer's learning, he coined anaih from anena after the analogy of sivena and sivaih.

The next three words are clearly svapadair justa rajño. The remainder of this line consists of three words of which the last two are certainly artha-nisphala, though the last two aksaras are somewhat blurred. The first word which consists of two aksaras is difficult. The first letter is certainly a soft consonant (because rājnah has become rājno before it) and appears to be dh or bh with a faint indication of the vowel \bar{a} . The second is a double consonant, but peculiar. Babu R. D. Banerji read it as $rmm\bar{a}$, but it is not like m and there is no \bar{a} ; yet if so taken it can only be rmma. It seems to me however to be vya; compare it with the v in °vârtha (l. 14). The two aksaras would therefore be dharmma as his reading would stand then, or bhavya as I take them. This word and the next then read dharmmartha or bhavy-artha. In favour of his reading it may be noted that dharmmartha (or rather dharmmartha, as it would have to be amended, and as he amends it) would correspond to arthadharmma in the second half of the sloka in 1, 14; but against it are the arguments (1) that the first aksara has traces of \bar{a} and the second has none, and (2) that there is no instance here in which m as the second member of a compound consonant is written incompletely as a subscribed character, for its right limb is always carried up to the top as in dharmma and asmai (1. 14). On the other hand bhavu-artha satisfies the conditions, for it has \bar{a} in the first aksara, and y as the second member of a compound consonant is sometimes written wholly as a subscript character; compare samsmrtya (l. 13), bhogyi (l. 14) and prakalpya (l. 15), in all which words he agrees that there is a subscript y; and further it is not necessary there should be precise parallelism regarding dharma and artha in lines 13 and 14. The reading therefore appears to be bhavyartha-nisphala.

Line 14. He reads the first six aksaras as icchato $vy\bar{a}(?)$ - $krt\bar{a}$. The first is puzzling, but the others are tsa-bhogy \bar{i} - $krt\bar{a}$,
for the second has no c in it but is t with a subscript s;

the third is bho, the rounded left limb being characteristic of bh as in bhavatā(m) (1. 9) vyavahāribhih (1. 13), etc.; and the fourth is $gy\bar{i}$, as shewn by comparing g in nrga (l. 1), $^{\circ}yog\bar{a}ya$ (l. 11), naga (l. 15), etc., and the vowel i in Kesavadin (l. 15), sīmā (l. 20), etc. The first aksara is not i nor i, for it is different from i in icchāmi (l. 10), and neither of those vowels can with tsa form an intelligible word; and the word must be intelligible because it occurs in a sloka quoted. It resembles no particular letter, and the letters which it suggests, namely, n. I and s. produce no intelligible word. We must therefore see what word is possible in this sloka, which contrasts wellcultivated land with land infested by wild animals. Now there are only two letters which with tsa make a word, namely, ma Matsa is inadmissible: it is a rare form of matsua and makes nonsense of this passage. Vatsa therefore is the only possible word, and it yields a good and striking meaning. must be admitted that the character is not va not even ba, and I can only suggest that the engraver has bungled the letter. Bungled letters will be found in grant B; see my Article, p. 199.

The next word is $bh\bar{u}mir$ and not $bh\bar{u}mim$, for there is no anusvāra over the mi, and there is an r above the following nr. The succeeding words are $nrpasyaiv\hat{a}rtha-dharmma-kr$. Here the śloka ends, and the following words tad asmai, etc., introduce a new sentence. Kr cannot end a word, and it is obvious that the word intended is krt, and that the final t has been forgotten coming as it does in connexion with the following tad.

The śloka then stands thus:-

Sā ṣaṭā śvāpadair juṣṭā rājño bhāvy-artha-niṣphalā Vatsa-bhogyī-kṛṭā bhūmir nṛpasyaivârtha-dharma-kṛṭ. where (as I conjecture) ṣaṭā sṭands for an original ṣaḍbhiḥ.

In the remainder of this line $vr\bar{a}hman\bar{a}$ is a mistake for $vr\bar{a}hman\bar{a}ya$, and $d\bar{a}yat\bar{a}m$ for $d\bar{i}yat\bar{a}m$. The declension of $br\bar{a}hmana$ appears to have puzzled some of the local scholars, for in grant B the dative is $br\bar{a}hman\bar{a}$ in l. 20, as it is here, and $br\bar{a}hmane$ in l. 11. This suggests that in ordinary parlance the final a had disappeared, and the word was pronounced $br\bar{a}hman$ and was sometimes treated as a base ending in an. The suggestion is supported by a converse process that we find, Sanskrit bases ending in in are treated sometimes as if they had a final a, thus grant A has $sv\bar{a}minasya$ and $adhy\bar{a}yinasya$ (l. 19) as genitives. Hence it seems a fair inference that the final Sanskrit a was generally dropped in the ordinary language, as it is at the present day.

Line 15. The reading is not kulacārān but kula-vārān, the

third letter being a v as in the preceding Kesavadin.

Line 16. The second word is not keitra but keetra, the vowel being an e. The third word is rightly read as kulya.

The next words are $v\bar{a}pa$ -ttrayamm apāsya, the t being doubled with the r as is generally done here and in the other grants, and a superfluous anusvāra being wrongly placed over the ya. The remaining letters are not $vy\bar{a}ghracora$ koyacchi patacca bhuhsīmā but $vy\bar{a}ghra-corako$ yac cheṣam tac catuh-sīmā-; the vowel over the cch is e and not i; the next letter is a badly formed e and not e and not e and anusvāra which is slightly displaced to the left because the akṣara e in the preceding line prevents its being placed in its proper position. What he reads as e bhu is e tu formed rather carelessly, for the left limb has the curve that e always has in this inscription (see for instance the e in tac e a immediately preceding), whereas that limb in e is always curved the other way (see remarks above on 1. 14). His conjecture therefore about e patacca (p. 434) is unnecessary.

Line 17. The reading is Supratika-svāminah, and not Supratikā-svaminah, though this is probably a printer's error.

Line 19. He reads jogikā, but the word is jotikā for the second letter has not the bar at the bottom of its left limb that g always has; and similarly his reading koga further on should be kota. He reads candravarmma, but there is no r over the last aksara, and the third aksara seems to be ca, for it is far more like the ca in the preceding candra and in câttrah and piśāca (l. 18) than the va in pūrvvasyām and Vidyā (l. 18), etc. This word is in my opinion Candracampa. His reading uttarena, though correct Sanskrit, is not what the plate has, for it has uttarena plainly.

Line 20. The reading is not candra but câttra; it is the same word as câttrah in 1 18. His reading sasthi should be sasti, for the second aksara is st and not sth, the form of which

is shown in visthaya(m) in 1. 22.

Line 21. He reads $v\bar{a}$ after $c\bar{a}numant\bar{a}$, but it is $c\bar{a}$ like the $c\bar{a}$ in that word. It is no doubt a mistake for ca or perhaps $v\bar{a}$. The last word is vaset and not vaseta, for there is under the t a line which is evidently a virāma. At the end the plate shows a single bar clearly, so that a double one has not to be

supplied.

Line 22. The first word is not sva-datām but sva-datām, as the t is not double; this is an error of course. His reading vasundharām should be vasūndharām, for the s has not only its right limb extended downwards to denote u, as in Supratīka (ll. 5 and 17), but also a curve added thereto which makes the long \bar{u} . This of course is another error. The reading is $visih\bar{a}y\bar{a}(m)$ and not $visia\bar{a}y\bar{a}(m)$; see remarks above on 1.20. He places a bar at the end of this line, but there is none in the original, and there can be none because the sloka does not end here.

Line 23. The reading is pacyate and not pacyati, the vowel mark being e rather than i. He reads samuat, but the

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third akṣara is not a single t nor has it a virāma, but it contains three well-marked downward strokes which can only denote a doubled t, as in pravartaniya (l. 10), Jīvadattas (l. 4), etc., or the consonants ts. The true reading therefore is either samvatta or samvatsa. The former is inadmissible, hence the word must be samvatsa, and in fact there are traces of lines at the bottom of the akṣara which indicate that the word is samvatsa, short for samvatsare, the final syllable being omitted as in Kārtti and di. This ts may be compared with ts in vatsa (l. 14).

The first numeral is not 30 as he reads it, but 10 as I take it and as Dr. Hoernle and Dr. Bloch also read it. It is formed like the letter $l\bar{a}$ with a hook (like the vowel sign r) beneath it. The sign for 30, when made like la, has no hook beneath it; whereas the sign for 10 was sometimes made like la or $l\bar{a}$ and then had the hook beneath it. The difference is clearly shown in Bühler's *Indische Palæographie*, Table IX, where the various signs for 10 and 30 are given; and this sign for 10 is figured twice in col. xiii, once in col. xvi, and again in col. xix. Precisely the same sign occurs also at the end of grant C. The reading is therefore samvatsa(re) 10 4, that is, 14. The word samvatsara shews that the year does not belong to any era, but means the regnal year of Samācāradeva. The date is given similarly in grants A and C.

TRANSLATION.

Welfare! While the supreme king of great kings, SrI-Samācaradeva, who is without rival on this earth and who is equal in steadfastness to Nrga, Nahusa, Yayāti and Ambarīsa, is glowing in majesty, the Uparika Jīvadatta is the privy minister appointed over the suvarna-vothyā in New Avakā-śikā, which he obtained through paying court to the pair of lotus-like feet of this monarch. Pavittruka is the lord of the district in Vāraka province, which is caused to rejoice by that Uparika.

Whereas, according to this lord's practice, 2 Supratika-svāmin informed the district government, wherein the oldest official Dāmuka is the chief, and the leading man of the district Vatsa-kunda, the leading man Suci-pālita, the leading man Vihita-ghosa, and the local (?) 3 leading man Priya-datta, the leading man Janārdana-kunda and other leading men, and many other principal men of business, thus—"I wish through your honours' favour for a piece of waste land which has long

¹ See remarks, p. 487 below.

² I read the emendation vyavahāratah; but vyavaharatah of the text would give the meaning "while he is conducting the business of government."

⁸ As regards évarada (?), see p. 488 below.

lain neglected 1; and do ye deign to do me that as a favour, after making a copper-plate grant of it to me for my employment as a brahman to be engaged in offering the bali, the caru, and sacrifices."

Wherefore the men of business who are the above-mentioned of Santha, having entertained this request, and having called to mind the verse-"That land, which is revelled in by the six kinds of wild beasts. 3 is unprofitable as regards the wealth that should accrue to the king: land, when made enjoyable by young animals, produces wealth and righteousness indeed to the king; and having decided, "hence let it be given to this brahman"; and having constituted the karanikas Naya-naga, Kesava and others the arbitrators 5; and having put aside the three kulva-sowing-areas of cultivated land which have been previously granted away by a copper-plate 6; and having defined the four boundary-indications of the remaining land which is in the 'Tiger's char,' 7 have bestowed it on this Supratika-svāmin by executing a copper-plate grant.

And the boundary-indications are these. On the east, the goblin-haunted parkatti8 tree; on the south, Vidyādhara's cultivating-tenure; on the west, Candracampa's hut-tent 10;

1 According to the emendation ciravasanna.

I cannot suggest any word which will fit the blank where the letters are obliterated at the end of line 12.

8 Perhaps tigers, leopards, hyænas, bears, wild boar and buffaloes.

The verse is a general statement.

• The idea is that the land should be so safe that no danger could befall anything young.

⁵ Or referees. This word kulavāra is discussed in my article on the

three other grants (p. 205).

6 This is the literal translation if we read krta instead of krtya at the beginning of 1.16; and if we retain krtya, the meaning is the same, though the construction is less elegant.

7 This is the translation if we read corake in 1.16; but, if we retain corake, the translation is "the four boundary-indications of what is the remainder, namely, the 'Tiger's char'"—which does not say what it is the remainder of.

8 The waved-leaf fig-tree, Ficus infectoria.

9 The waved-leaf fig-tree, Ficus injectoria.
9 Jotikā. This is not Sanskrit. It is obviously a word formed from jota, and I am inclined to read jota as equivalent to the modern word jot, "the land-tenure belonging to a cultivating raiyat," though the t's are different. Some such meaning seems obviously required here. Jot, as it is written and pronounced in Bengali (though it is also written yot and pronounced jot), is a word of doubtful derivation. Some derive it from the Sanskrit root yu or yuj, though the connexion in meaning is difficult. The Bengali dictionary, Prakriti bād Abhidhān, says it is a foreign word (Persian or such like), but this seems erroneous. It is probably an indigenous term: and as an indigenous t wavered It is probably an indigenous term; and as an indigenous t wavered between Sanskrit t and t (see Beames' Comparative Grammar, vol. I, p. 219; Hoernle's Grammar of the Gaudian languages, pp. 8—10) the original word might appear as jota when Sanskritized here or as jot in modern Bengali Indeed I have heard the word jot pronounced with a s sound intermediate between s and s.

10 Kosa means a 'hut.' There is no Sanskrit word kena, but there

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on the north, Gopendra's char and the boundary of the

village.

And here apply the verses 1—"Whoever confiscates land that has been granted away by himself or granted away by another, he becoming a worm in his own 2 ordure rots along with his ancestors."

In the regnal year 14; the first day of Karttika.

NOTES ON THE TRANSLATION.

The mandala or province was Vāraka in all the grants, and in addition to what has been said about Varendra in my article (p. 209), I may mention that Varendra was sometimes regarded as a part of Gauda-deśa, for at the end of the description of the Purāna-sarvasva MSS. numbered 143-4 in Aufrecht's Bodleian Catalogue, a notice of its author is inserted which begins thus (p. 87)—Gaude Śrīvidite Varendra-visaye, etc.

The capital of the province was New Avakāśikā as mentioned in that article (p. 211), and it is this grant which makes it clear, because the references to it in grants B and C leave uncertain what is meant by the term. At this time Jivadatta was the Uparika and ruler of the province and resided in New Avakāśikā, being a successor of the Uparika Nāgadeva mentioned in grants B and C, for I agree with Babu R. D. Banerii (as will be shown later) in placing this grant later than the three others. He conducted a special branch of the administration, for he is called "the antaranga appointed over the suvarnavothyž in New Avakāsikā." Antar-anga means "an inner member" and appears to denote a member of the inner council of the king. Suvarna-vothy *\tilde{a} seems to me, not a place because it was in New Avakāsikā, but some branch of the administration, as will be seen on comparing the corresponding passages in grants B and C. In both of those the Uparika Nagadeva had the office of "chief warden of the gate," and in C he had been also appointed principal minister of trade (pp. 201, 205). Suvarna means gold, but vothyž is not Sanskrit and must be some Prakrit or indigenous term Sanskritized. I cannot explain it, and can only suggest that it may mean something like 'exchequer,' and, if so, that the Uparika had charge of the Revenues or Finances.

Within the Vāraka province were a number of viṣayas or districts, and Pavitruka was the lord or governor (pati) of the

is a word $kenik\bar{a}$, a 'tent,' and it is an obvious formation from a simpler word such as kena. Kota-kena therefore means a 'hut-like tent' or 'tent-like hut,' such as is used to this day by low wandering castes.

l Plural, but only one verse is cited.

The more usual reading is sa or śva- instead of sva-. With sa the meaning is—"he becoming a worm in ordure"; and with śva-—"he becoming a worm in a dog's ordure."

district in which this grant was made, as Jajāva was in grant A (p. 195). It appears that under him the local administration continued to be, as in grants B and C, conducted by a Board of officials, in which the chief was the oldest official named Dāmuka.

The mahattaras were the local leading men, as explained in my article (p. 213), and this title with the word vara added, that is, mahattaravara, is I conjecture the term from which has been derived the word mātabbar or mātabar, the title now given in Chittagong and East Bengal to the headmen of a village (p. 213, note). The expression which I read tentatively as svarada in 1. 7 seems to imply a distinction from the word visaya in 1. 6. The latter word is prefixed to the three mahattaras Vatsakunda, Sucipālita and Vihitaghoṣa, while svarada (?) is prefixed to the mahattaras Priyadatta and Janārdanakunda. If one may venture a conjecture on this apparent distinction, it may be suggested that perhaps there were two classes of leading men, visaya-mahattaras and svarada(?)-mahattaras, the latter having a more local status than the former.

This copper-plate was found, as stated by Mr. Stapleton in his Prefatory note to Babu R. D. Banerji's article, in the mauza of Ghāgrāhāti, which adjoins Piñjuri on the south-west and borders on the river Ghāgar, in the south-west corner of the Faridpur district. Some interesting inferences may be drawn by studying the local allusions in this grant with the aid of the Revenue Survey map of this region (on the scale of one inch to a mile).

The names of most significance are Vyāghra-coraka and Gopendra-coraka. The word coraka in them is an interesting one. It is clearly not Sanskrit, for the Sanskrit word coraka means only "a thief; a kind of plant; a kind of perfume"; and none of those meanings are appropriate here. There can be no doubt that it is the Sanskritized form of the common Bengali word by, which is well known in its Anglicized form 'char' or 'chur,' any 'alluvial formation thrown up in or at the side of a river-bed.' Such chars are common in all rivers of any importance, and vary in size and character from a mere spit of unproductive sand to an extensive deposit of rich and fertile soil. The rivers of Bengal have always carried down large quantities of silt, and have always shifted their beds, the silt being deposited and forming chars wherever the current is slack. These chars are so important a feature of the riverine tracts that they must have had a name from the earliest times, and there can be no doubt that in coraka we have the Sanskrit form of the then vernacular word for 'char.' Chars, if of considerable size, are named, and the two names mentioned in this inscription are such as might be given at the present day. namely, "the Tiger's char" (in Bengali बारचंड इंड or बायडंड) and

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"Gopendra's char." This "Tiger's char" was a large one, because a previous grant of three "kulya-sowing" areas of cultivated land had been made out of it, and by this grant the remainder was given to Supratika svāmin. In the article on the other grants the meaning of a "kulya sowing area" has been discussed, and reasons have been adduced for estimating it at about an acre or three standard bighas (pp. 214-6). Hence the "Tiger's char" was more than thrice that size and presumably contained a good deal more than nine bighas. A char of this size could only be formed in a rather large river; hence this char and Gopendra's char were on the side of a rather large river, which corresponded therefore to the modern Ghāgar. The map shows no trace at present that the Ghāgar was connected northwards with the Ganges, yet it may have been so in early times, because the configuration of the Ghagar and the other water-ways near it favours this view, and it is well known that river-beds have been completely silted up and obliterated.

Saintha or Santha is not a Sanskrit word, and can only, it seems, be the name of the place where this grant was made. It is stated the land was given by the vyavahārins or men of business who (as I read the passage) belonged to Santha. This word vyavahārin deserves notice, for nothing is said about villagers, and it suggests that Santha was not an ordinary agricultural village, but was rather a business place. chars were alongside it, it was evidently in close proximity to the river Ghagar. Hence it seems a fair inference, that Santha was a trading centre for ships and boats, and that the vyavahārins were the local merchants I do not find any name resembling Santha in the map, but, as this copper-plate was found in Ghāgrāhāti, one may reasonably presume it was found in its original site and that Ghagrahati is the modern name of the old Santha. This is supported by some further considerations; hence it appears that this grant should properly be called the Ghagrahati grant.

Ghāgrāhāti means "the village (or locality) of the hāt (mart) on the Ghāgar," and proves that there was once a hāt or mart at this place, though it has apparently long ceased to exist; and the fact, that the village took its name from the hāt and not the hāt from the village, shows that a trading mart was first founded here on the Ghāgar, and that the village grew up from it. This accords well with the predominance assigned to the vyavahārins in this grant. A mart so situated was well placed as a trade centre for all the south west portion of the (Faridpur) district. It was connected with the sea by a fine water-way in the R. Madhumatī and the Haringhātā estuary, and the small ships of those days could have reached it readily. Such ships penetrated further inland for they are referred to in grant A (l. 24-5, and p. 198, note).

The existing hāts are situated more northward. The present Ghāgarhāt, "the hāt on the Ghāgar," is some three miles to the north; and there are besides Pinjuri-hāt about a mile to the north-east, and Parkunā-hāt about four miles to the north. The noteworthy point here is that "the hāt on the Ghāgar" has been shifted northwards. It was originally in Ghāgrāhāti as the name testifies, and although this mauza still retains its name, the hāt which gave it its name has been moved to the north. What was the reason for the removal?

I venture to suggest the following explanation.

The map shows that all the country adjoining Ghagrahati on the south and south-west is now bil or "marsh." It is not likely that the ancient hat on the Ghagar would have been placed in proximity to a marsh, when excellent sites were available a little further northward. Elsewhere I I have adduced reasons to show that there have been local subsidences of the land in the northern middle portion of the Sundarban region, sufficient to turn land that was of ordinary elevation into marsh, and it is highly probable that some such subsidence took place in the southern tract of the Ghagar, because a large area south and south-west of Ghagrahati is now marsh. It may be inferred therefore that, when the hat was established in Ghagrahati, all the country around it was of good elevation, and that when the land subsided, the hat with the same name Ghāgrā-hāt was moved northwards to a better situation, while the village around the old site remained with the name Ghāgrāhāti. If this explanation is valid, one can well understand that this copper-plate might have been abandoned, where it has been found, as being no longer of any value; and that it was really a Ghāgrāhāti grant.

Further, from the considerations put forward in my article on the other grants (p. 209) and from what is known of the course of Sundarban forest reclamation, it is very probable that the Sundarban forest could not have been very far from this spot at the time of this grant; and this is supported by the pointed reference to wild beasts in lines 13 and 14. Hence it seems that Santha could hardly have been a town, but was presumably something like what Morelganj, which is further

south, was 60 or 70 years ago.

Character of the Grant.

The place therefore being an outlying mart was not one where brahmans of position would particularly choose to settle

In my "Revenue History of the Sundarbans" and in an article on the Sundarbans in the Calcutta Review in or about 1889. I cannot give more precise references as those publications are not beside me.
2 See my "Revenue History of the Sundarbans."

Supratīka-svāmin does not appear to have been a brahman of position, for nothing is said about his lineage or attainments. such as we find in the other grants. In A the grantee Candrasvāmin was of the lineage of Bharadvāja, was a Vājasaneya and studied the six Angas. In B and C the grantees Somasvāmin and Gomidatta-svāmin were of the lineage of Kanva, were Vājasaneyas, are styled Lauhityas and are commended as It appears from the tenor of this grant, that Supratīka-svāmin had come to this place and was willing, if he could get some land, to settle in it and perform religious rites. The matter was transacted between him and the vyavahārins who resided here. Nothing is said about the villagers taking any part in it. Information of the proposed transaction had to be given to the adhikarana and the mahattaras, as has been noticed in my article (p. 214), but it is stated clearly that it was the vyavahārins who accepted his proposal and gave him the land. The arrangement therefore was one entirely between him and them. There was no grantor who bought the land and bestowed it on a grantee as in the three other plates; but he asked for some land as a consideration for his undertaking as a brahman to offer the bali, caru and sacrifices, and they accepted his proposal. It was no case of purchase, but a free gift by the vyavahārins on condition that he should perform priestly functions. The general terms used imply that he was to become priest to them generally, and that there was no other brahman in the place. Here then we have an instance of the way in which brahmans moved onwards and settled as priests in new places which had reached a position to need their services.

The arrangement was made with the cognizance of the adhikarana and in the presence of the mahattaras, and the seal of the adhikarana would have been affixed to this plate as it was to the other grants. The curved shape of the left-hand margin of the inscription in all the grants shows, that this plate was made to receive a round seal fastened on its front as the other grants still have, and that the triangular hole, which Babu R. D. Banerji comments on (p. 434), was made to enable the seal to be soldered through the hole on to the back of the plate. The fastening has decayed and the seal has been lost.

Supratīka-svāmin asked for a piece of waste land, and what was given him was the remainder of the "Tiger's char." As it was not bought from any one, but the vyavahārins gave it, it must have been the common property of the vyavahārins, if not of the whole village; and was therefore land somewhat similar to that in grant A, as explained in my article (p. 214). It was waste char and therefore land of recent formation; hence no reference was apparently necessary to the record-keeper as in the other grants (p. 213). As there was no purchase but the remainder of the char was given, it was

unnecessary to measure the area as in those grants (p. 213). It was presumably covered with jungle in which tigers and other dangerous animals could lurk, for so much is implied by the citation of the verse, which contrasts the benefit that accrues to the king, when land is perfectly reclaimed, with what he loses when it is infested by wild beasts. It may also be inferred from that citation that the area was considerable, because the verse would not be significant, if the area was only a small patch insufficient to offer harbour to wild animals. It seems probable therefore that the remainder, which was given to Supratika-svāmin, could hardly have been much less than what had been granted away previously.

Validity of the Grant.

Babu R. D. Banerji pronounces the grant spurious and bases his decision on three grounds. (1) that the forger betraved himself by introducing archaic and obsolete letters in the script, (2) that the grant does not follow the formula of a regular grant as found in the majority of copper-plate inscriptions, and (3) that its purport is irregular, obscure, ambiguous and in parts unintelligible. I do not see the cogency of these grounds to his conclusion, and for the following reasons. reads the date as the year 34 and, assigning it to the Harsa Era, equates it with A.D. 640-1; and the gist of his criticisms on its script is to place its real period in about the last quarter of the 7th century (p. 432), that is, only some 40 or 50 years later than its professed date. If a forger wanted to make the grant appear to be only 40 or 50 years older than it really was, it was surely unnecessary for him to introduce obsolete letters and endanger his object by rendering its purport uncertain. This remark touches his first and third grounds, and the second will be considered later. See also postscript.

The true date however is the 14th regnal year of the monarch Samācāradeva. As nothing is known of him, his regnal year is no clue towards fixing the date of the grant. We must therefore estimate its period on other grounds; but before attempting that, I must first consider whether the three

grounds mentioned above are really sound.

Babu R. D. Banerji says (p. 432), "the characters used in this copper-plate inscription were collected from alphabets in use in three different centuries," namely, the alphabets of (1) the 3rd and the first half of the 4th century A.D., (2) the last half of the 5th century and the first half of the 6th century of North-Eastern India, and (3) the 6th century which came into general use in North-Eastern India in the early part of the 7th century. Now it is well known that old habits persist in out-of-the-way places long after they have disappeared from more important and progressive places. Hence we ought to expect

that a document executed in this outlying region should show older styles of writing than would be found in contemporaneous inscriptions at Bodh Gaya and Ganjam with which he compares this grant. An interesting illustration of this divergence is found in grant C. In the body of that deed the letter is is always written in its eastern form but on the Government seal attached thereto it has the western form. The western variety therefore had been introduced at head-quarters while the eastern variety was in general use among the people.

I will now consider the remarks which Babu R. D. Banerji makes regarding various letters in proof of his conclusion

stated above.

The first letter he discusses is h (p. 430). When uncompounded h is always (except in one instance) written here in early western Gupta form shown by Bühler in his Indische Palæographie, Table IV, cols. viii to xviii, which prevailed from about A.D. 500 to 675, and even earlier in the later Brāhmī alphabet: see his Table III. The one exception is in sahasrāni (11. 20-21), which Babu R. D. Banerji has overlooked, and there h has the early eastern form of a hook turned to the left. It has this form also when compounded with m in vrāhmana (ll. 11 and 14). The early western shape is used in the Bodh Gaya insciption of Mahanaman which is dated in A.D. 588-9 (FGI. p. 274), and is found in this Faridpur district even earlier, for it occurs in grant A which belongs to about the year 531. Babu R. D. Banerji says-"In a previous number of the Journal I have tried to establish that the Eastern variety of the early Gupta alphabet was dying out in the early decades of the fifth century" (pp. 430-1); but that proposition must be revised in the light of the three grants edited by me. In grant A of 531 A.D. both forms of h are used, the eastern 9 times and the western 6 times, and it appears they were used indifferently, because both are used in the same words mahārāja (l. 2), anugraha (ll. 18 and 19) and Himasena (Il. 23 and 25), and both occur in line 4 and again in 1. 8. There hm appears in the eastern form (l. 8). In grant B, the date of which is 567 at the latest, only the western form is used throughout, even in hm (ll. 9 and 20). But in grant C, which is some 20 years later, the eastern form is used throughout and the western form does not appear at all in the portions that are legible. Those grants show clearly that the two forms were in use side by side in this region during the 6th century, and the eastern form at least a century and a half later than he estimates, and that even then the western form had attained no ascendancy over the eastern. The fact then that in this grant the western form is used generally and the eastern once uncompounded and twice in hm is in full agreement with the other grants, and is no indication of falsity but rather a local characteristic of genuineness.

The next letter he notices is long i (p. 431). I have discussed its shape partially above (p. 479), and may here point out that it tended to vary considerably. Its various forms in grant A may be seen on comparing (to give only salient instances) Sīla (l. 24), °pādanīyā° (l. 22), krīya (l. 8), vikrīya (l. 11), srī (l. 2), grhītvā (l. 8) and kīrtti (l. 14). The copy of grant B on plate II does not show all details quite clearly, yet the shapes of \bar{i} may be noticed in $s\bar{i}m\bar{a}$ (l. 21), $s\bar{r}i$ (l. 2), parkkratī (l. 21) and vikrīya° (l. 14). Grant C is so badly corroded on its obverse that there is not the same opportunity of scrutinizing details, yet the form of i may be seen in vikkrītam (l. 20), sīla and sīmā (l. 23), sīmā (ll. 22-3) and pratīta (l. 19). There was a tendency to reduce the size of the inner curl of this vowel sign, and in these last two words and in vikriva° (grant B, l. 14) it has practically degenerated into a dot connected with the outer curve. To separate the dot and the curve would be a natural modification, as we find in this grant; and here the i sign always consists of a dot or small stroke, and a curve on its right, except in Supratika (l. 17) where their position is reversed. The form of i then in this grant is no indication that it is spurious.

His third point relates to initial i (p. 431). This occurs only once, in $icch\bar{a}mi$ (l. 9); and his reading of icchato (l. 14) is untenable as explained above (p. 483). The i in $icch\bar{a}mi$ consists of two dots, one above the other, and a perpendicular stroke on their right. There is nothing suspicious in this form, because it is used in the same word in grant A (l. 7). It occurs in inscriptions of the fourth and fifth centuries (see Bühler's Table IV, cols. i and v), and persisted later in this

outlying region.

His fourth point (p. 431), in so far as it is definite, relates to m and the bipartite y. The m's in this grant are like those in grants B and C and are not open to distrust. I have discussed the forms of y in my article (pp. 206-7), and the form which it has in this plate is always of the third and latest style which has been figured there. The instances here present three stages in its formation. In the earliest of these the left perpendicular reaches the bottom horizontal stroke, as shown in the second y of $Yay\bar{a}ti$ (l. 1), visaya (l. 4) and $^{\circ}yoq\bar{a}ya$ (l. 11); and this shape constitutes a connecting link with the second form figured in my article. The second stage is exhibited in pascimāyām (l. 19), and the third in ttrayam and yac (l. 16). Similar stages may be traced in grant C in the words Kāśikāyām (l. 3), vikkrīya° (l. 17) and yo (l. 24). This grant is therefore closely like C as regards bipartite y, and differs from it in no longer using the earlier form figured by me as the second. It thus appears that as regards both m and y there is no ground for suspicion in this grant. He adds—" The bipartite ya looks ill side by side with sa, ja and ha (when it occurs alone) in which no acute angle can be traced"; but my scrutiny of this grant does not support this statement, and letters like these in shape are found in grant C. I need not dilate on this statement.

He deals next with the letter la (p. 431). Its form here is the later western shape, and it is also found in grant B, where for instance we may compare laddhā° (1. 3), kāle (1. 4), Gopāla (l. 5), etc. The earlier western shape is more prevalent in grant C, in which the left limb of l is not carried to the top of the line, as we see in kula (l. 18), sīla (l. 19), nalena (l. 19), lingani (1. 21), etc.; yet even there l occurs once in Dhruvilatu (1, 22) like l in this grant. In grant A all the forms of l are used indifferently; thus the eastern form appears in labdhao (1. 2), kāla (1. 5), lābhah (1. 13), abhilāsa (1. 14), samkalpābhi (1. 14) and sila (1. 24); the earlier western form in Kula (1. 4); and a shape nearly approaching the later western form in mandale (1. 3), likhita (1. 20) and lingani (1. 23). It thus appears that both the eastern and the western forms of l were in use in this region in 531 the date of grant A, and, though the former does not occur in grants B and C, yet it may have lingered on in this remote locality, so that its use in this grant is no certain ground for disparagement.

The sixth point (p. 431) concerns the letter da (that is, da)

and has been discussed above (p. 478).

Seventhly, Babu R. D. Banerji refers (p. 432) to the word parkkatti (l. 18). He objects to the form of the pa as peculiar, and says, it "does not resemble the remaining ones, which are usually rectangular in form, seldom showing an acute angle." This p however has the same shape as that in pravarttaniya (l. 10), nrpasya (l. 14) and $pis\bar{a}ca$ (l. 18); and p in several cases varies from the rectangular shape, in prasada (l. 11), pario (l. 12), Supratika and patti (l. 17) and pitrbhi (l. 22). He adds, "the earliest occurrence of this form of pa is to be found in inscriptions of the seventh and eighth centuries A.D.; " but the acute angled shape is found in the Bodh Gaya inscription of Mahānāman of 588-9 (FGI. p. 274), and is figured as earlier by Bühler in his Table IV, col. ix. Most stress however is laid on the second aksara rkka, which he says "consists of two looped kas and a superscript ra; ' but the upper k is not looped as shown in the plate published with his article, and only the second is looped. Precisely this form of doubled k is found in the Bodh Gaya inscription of 588-9; and therefore his remark that "this form of ka becomes fairly common from the last quarter of the seventh century A.D. and afterwards '' (p. 432) needs modification. There is nothing objectionable therefore in the forms of pa and rkka in this grant.

I have now considered all his criticisms on the script in this grant, and have shown that the features which he distrusts are to be found in other almost contemporaneous inscriptions which are genuine; so that as regards the script there is

nothing suspicious in this grant.

In stating his second ground for discrediting this grant he points out that it differs from the formula found in the majority of copper-plate inscriptions (p. 432). I need not examine the formula, because he refers to grants in which the donor is a royal person; whereas this grant is, as explained above (p. 491), not a royal grant but a grant by the bus nessmen of Santha of a part of the common land of their village. Hence that formula can have no application here, and the procedure was quite different. What the formalities on such occasions were has been discussed in my article (p. 214) and noticed above (p. 491), and the same procedure was observed in this grant as in the three others. Hence his strictures on its form (p. 433) are misplaced.

One important point must be kept in mind in construing ancient grants. It is a fact well known to all Revenue Officers, that, when gifts of land were made in old times, they might be granted either subject to the land-tax due to the sovereign, or exempt therefrom; that is, they might be (in modern Revenue language) either 'revenue-paying' or 'revenue-free.' It was no doubt to guard the royal revenues from being endangered that the parties to a grant were required to give notice to the Government. Neither the king nor his high officials could attend every small grant such as these were, and it would seem that the mahattaras attended as representatives of the lo-al

administration at the transaction.

Babu R. D. Banerji points out that grants might be forged, and cites an instance mentioned in the Madhuban Plate of Harsa (Epig. Ind. VII, 155). Certainly grants were sometimes forged, but the particulars and circumstances of that case and this grant are altogether different. In that case the brahman, who held the kūta-śāsana, claimed a whole village under it. What he did was obviously this. He did not dispossess the inhabitants and cultivators of the village (for he could not cultivate the lands himself and certainly did not depopulate it) and they remained, but he imposed himself upon them as lord of the village. All that he would have claimed from them was the various taxes and dues payable by them and, as they were bound to pay those, he would not have interfered with their life and ways more than the sovereign's own officers who levied those demands, unless he exacted more. The position of the villagers therefore remained unaffected, and the person who suffered was the king, because the whole, or at least a part, of the revenue might have been intercepted by the false grantee. It was therefore for the king to annul the false grant, and not for the villagers to contest it.

The particulars and circumstances of this grant however were altogether different, as has been already explained. It is incredible that a poor brahman of no position, who wanted only a parcel of waste land for his personal occupation, could have foisted himself into this village by forging a copper-plate grant for a piece of char land as having been given to him by the business-men of the village. If he attempted such a fraud, he would have set the whole village up in arms against himself. and his claim would have been instantly disproved by the inhabitants and the mahattaras Further, such a deed, if forged forty or fifty years after its alleged date to support a claim to this piece of land, would have been wholly futile, because it would have been refuted by the fact, which every villager would have known, that he had not been in possession of the land during those years. In fact, this grant was a natural agreement between the people and the brahman for their mutual benefit, and its very pettiness shews it cannot be spurious. Morcover it is expressly said that the cultivation of waste land increases the king's revenue.

Babu R. D. Banerji's third ground deals with the meaning of this grant. He says the wording "is very ambiguous" (p. 433), and "The contents of lines 12 and 13 are quite unintelligible. Here and there words of Sanskritic origin are to be found mixed up with what seems to be unintelligible gibberish" (pp. 433-4). I venture to think that my reading and translation redeem the grant from this condemnation, and render it not only clear and intelligible but also remarkably vivid in its local references; and that they shew that the word tamrapatta is not open to the stricture which he passes on it (p. 434).

There are certainly some words which are not proper Sanskrit, but their use, so far from being suspicious, is only what might be expected when local conditions peculiar to this outlying region had to be put into Sanskrit diess. There could not be Sanskrit equivalents for every vernacular term, and the only course open was to Sanskritize those terms. Further, it would have been surprising, if a good scholar had been found in this remote spot, and suspicious if this petty grant had been drawn up in correct Sanskrit. The peculiar words here are volhyž (l. 3), śvarada? (l. 7), satā (l. 13), coraka (Il. 16 and 20), jotikā and kena (l. 19). As regards śvarada (?) no explanation can be attempted, because (as already mentioned, p. 480) it is doubtful what word was written; still a meaning has been suggested which seems possible. Kena has a corresponding secondary form in Sanskrit. For satā an explanation has been put forward which is based upon substantial grounds and is appropriate. Coraka is a vernacular word Sanskritized, and so I think is jotikā, and probably vothyā also; and for these three words meaning, have been suggested which are perfectly suitable.

Peculiar words are also found in the three other grants.

Thus grant A has sādhanika! (ll. 7, 15), sal (l. 19) and kṣṇṇ (l. 25); B has kāraṇḍaya (l. 5) and daṇḍaka (l. 23) and probably the local title mridhā Sanskritized (see my article, p. 202, note 18); C has apparently vyāpāraṇḍya (l. 3); and apaviñchya occurs in all of them (A, l. 16; B, l. 19; C, l. 19).

All the grounds on which Babu R. D. Banerji has pronounced this grant to be spurious have been examined, and it appears that the particulars which he considers open to distrust are not really suspicious, and that the grant has all the marks of genuineness in the character of its script, the form in which it is drawn up, and its purport. I am therefore of opinion that it is not spurious but perfectly genuine and valid.

Date of the Grant.

There are some data to enable us to fix approximately the period in which this grant was made and in which the king Samācāradeva reigned.

First, we have the shapes of the letters k, y and s, and

the disappearance of the character for b.

The disappearance of this character, which is used in grants A and B and perhaps in C, has been discussed above (p. 477) and shews that this grant must be later than A and B and probably later than C also.

B and probably later than C also.

The shape of y is in Dr. Hoernle's opinion, as mentioned in my article (p. 207), an important criterion for determining the age of writings from the fifth to the seventh century A.D. Its shape in this grant is the third of the three kinds discussed in my article (p. 206) and is similar to that in grant C; but this grant is later than C, because (1) the second kind of y which appears in C does not occur here, and (2) the third form has almost reached its full development here.

In the body of all the other grants the letter s is written in the eastern form, but in the government seal attached to C it has the western form as already mentioned (p. 493). The corresponding seals on A and B are too much corroded to permit of its shape being ascertained. The people therefore used the eastern form, though the western had been introduced at head-quarters, and some time would be required before the latter would oust the former from general use. In this grant we have a later stage because only the western form is used.

On these three grounds therefore this grant is later than C, and the date of C is 586 at the latest and may be five or ten years earlier.

The first inscription in which the looped form of k was

I I have to thank Babu R. D. Banerji for pointing out that sādhanika occurs also in other grants in the forms Dausādhanika, Dausādhasādhanika. etc.

used in Eastern India is, I believe, the Bodh Gaya inscription of Mahānāman of 588-9 (FGI, p. 274), and some time must have elapsed before it reached this outlying region since it does

not appear in the other grants.

These four considerations suggest that this grant must be later than 586 and 588-9 A.D. The question, how much later it was, depends on what may be considered a sufficient interval to permit of all these modifications establishing themselves in this remote locality. I do not think we can estimate a shorter period than some thirty years, and if so, this grant might be assigned to the latter part of the first quarter of the seventh century.

Next, we may consider the reference to the king Samācāradeva. Though nothing is known of him, there seems to be no good reason to doubt the genuineness of the name, because the grant is genuine; and even if it were spurious, no forger would be so foolish as to date it in the reign of a king who never existed, especially if (according to Babu R. D. Banerji's arguments) it was fabricated no very long time after its professed date. The name moreover is a possible one, being analogous to the royal names Dharmāditya and Silāditya and personal

names such as Gunadeva.

The description of Samācāradeva suggests certain in-The earlier emperor Dharmaditya in grant A. though styled only mahārājādhirāja (l. 2), is yet alluded to as parama-bhattāraka (l. 13); and has in grant B both the former title and also bhattāraka (l. 2). In grant C Gopacandra, who may have been a descendant of the Guptas as suggested in my article (p. 208), received the same two titles, and he reigned in Bengal as an independent monarch after the dissolution of Dharmāditya's empire. Here Samācāradeva is styled only mahārājādhirāja. Further, it is stated in grant A that Sthanudatta was the mahārāja of this province and was subordinate to the emperor Dharmaditya. In grant B, which was later in that emperor's reign, the local mahārāja had ceased to exist; but in grant C Gopacandra appears as the local monarch when the empire broke up. Similarly in this grant Samācāradeva is the local monarch, and no one is mentioned as his superior. Hence it appears that he was an independent king of Bengal.

Now Bengal was subject to Harsa in the second quarter of the seventh century, and Harsa, "when at the height of his power, exercised a certain amount of control as suzerain over the whole of Bengal, even as far east as the distant kingdom of Kāmarūpa, or Assam, and seems to have possessed full sovereign authority over western and central Bengal." (V. Smith, History, 2nd ed., p. 366). But he could not have established his supremacy in this eastern region till some years after his accession and after he had subdued the rest of North

India, that is, probably not until about 620 or even 625. The date might be even later, because he continued fighting for many years and was engaged in a campaign against Ganjam as late as 643 (ibid., p. 313). His empire lasted till his death in 646-7. After his decease it fell to pieces. "After his death the local Rajas no doubt asserted their independence" and very little is known concerning the history of Bengal for nearly a century (ibid., p. 366).

There were independent kings therefore in Bengal before Harsa extended his supremacy over it, and again after his death; and Samācāradeva must be placed either in the first quarter of the seventh century before Harsa's conquest, or in the third or fourth quarter after his empire decayed. The latter alternative is not probable, because of the claracter of the script in this grant. It has been pointed out that this grant exhibits the eastern forms of certain letters, which, though ousted by the western forms generally, yet remained in use in this remote locality. They might have continued till the first quarter of that century as shewn above (p 499), but could hardly have persisted about half a century longer (till the fourteenth year of a new king after the dissolution of the empire), because Harsa's supremacy over Bengal would have facilitated the predominance of the western forms and hastened the disuse of the eastern forms. It may be reasonably inferred therefore, that Samācāradeva reigned in the first quarter of the seventh century.

There is another consideration which supports this inference The king of Pundravardhana, that is Bengal, whose kingdom was more or less subject to Harsa, belonged to the brahman caste, as Mr. V. Smith says (History, p. 329) 2 now this (Faridpur) district would have appertained to Pundravardhana, and the termination deva in names often designated brahmans. In the name Samācāradeva deva in not a separate word or title as it often is in royal appellations, but forms a real compound with samācāra. Hence it seems probable that Samācāradeva was a brahman, and was a king of the Pundravardhana dynasty which was reigning when Harsa conquered Bengal.

The conclusions then which seem fairly established are, (1) that this grant was later than C which was executed in the year 586 (at the latest), and (2) that it was prior to Harsa's subjugation of Bengal, which may be assigned to about the

1 Mr. V. Smith tells me that this year is the correct date of Harsa's death, and not 647 8.

² Mr. V. Smith tells me he is unable at present to cite the authority for this statement. Possibly therefore an argument may not be based confidently on it, yet the existence of a Samacaradeva, king of Bengal or Pundravardhana, probably at this very time, suggests that the dynasty did belong to the brahman caste.

years 620—5, or perhaps later. These conclusions coupled with the inference drawn from the script, that the grant belongs probably to the latter part of the first quarter of the seventh century, lead me to assign it to about the years 615—20 A.D. Between the two dates 586 (at the latest) and 620—5 there is room for two or three independent kings in Bengal after the death of Gopacandra, whose nineteenth year was the former of those dates; and it seems probable that Sāmācāradeva was one of them, possibly the immediate predecessor of the Pundravardhana king who was Harsa's vissal, and that the commencement of his reign may be placed approximately in the years 601—5 A.D.

Names in the Grants.

Some interesting conclusions may apparently be drawn from the names mentioned in all these grants.

The names of the mahattaras in this inscription do not appear to be genuine compound words in which the component parts depend on one another, such as Dharmaditya, Sthanudatta and Kulacandra in grant A (Il 2-4), but seem to consist merely of two separate words in juxtaposition. Hence we may with full propriety write them as Vatsa Kunda, Suci Pālita, Vihita Ghosa, Priya Datta and Janārdana Kunda; and perhaps Jiva Datta may be so treated. Hence it appears that in these names we have four of the caste-surnames which are common in Bengal now, namely, Kunda (modern Kundu). Pālit, Ghosh and Datt. A caste-name karanika is mentioned (l. 15). Karanika is not classical Sanskrit, but is evidently a word formed from karana which was the name of a mixed caste that had the occupation of writing, accounts, etc. (Diety.); hence karanika apparently meant a member of this caste caste was presumably either the same as, or closely akin to. The position of senior member of the the kāvastha caste. Board was in grants B and C held by the then oldest kāyastha named Naya Sena. As this grant is later than those, it is worthy of note that, whereas the modern name kayastha is mentioned in grants B and C, the name used in this later grant is karanika, a title which is not used now. Where a person's caste is mentioned, the surname is sometimes omitted, as in the case of the karanikas, for, while one is named Nava Naga (Nag is another modern surname), the other is called simply Kesava (l. 15). It seems a fair inference that the second parts of these names were established as caste-surnames at the time of this inscription.

But in the other grants this feature is not so clear. Many persons are mentioned in A, but none can be resolved into a clear personal name and surname except Vi[na]ya Sena and Hima Sena. Sen is a well-known caste-surname in Bengal

now. In grant B few names are mentioned, and there is not much scope for scrutiny, yet two can be resolved, Naya Sena and Soma Ghosa. Grant C is so much corroded that, though apparently many names were mentioned, few can be deciphered now; yet two are divisible, the same Naya Sena and Visaya Kunda (?). This grant therefore shows a greater development of the caste-surname than the three earlier grants, and if that method of naming was fairly prevalent in this outlying district, it was presumably in more general vogue in the central part of the province. It seems therefore probable that the use of caste-surnames, which is universal at the present day in Bengal, was becoming generally adopted in the early part of the seventh century.

POSTSCRIPT.

After this article was in the press another reading of this Ghāgrāhāti grant was published in the Report of the Archæolozical Survey of India for 1907-8, p. 255. It is by the late Dr. T. Bloch, and he pronounced the grant to be a forgery, although it appears from his article that a great deal of the incription baffled him; for instance, he says (p. 256)—"The grammar of the inscription, especially the syntax, is in such a bad state of confusion, that it would be impossible to attempt anything like a connected and literal translation of the text." Accordingly, while offering a transliteration of the text, he has not attempted a translation. All or nearly all his criticisms will be found practically answered in this my article. I cannot extend this article, already long, by further discussions, but a comparison of his and my articles will remove all the difficulties that he found. My article on the three other grants was published last year, and he would no doubt have entirely revised his article if he had lived to see that.

I will only add as a general remark that it is hardly sound to pronounce anything that is not readily intelligible to be a forgery because even forgeries are meant to be quite intelligible, otherwise they would fail in their object.

37. A Hundred Modern Arabic Proverbs.

By CAPT. C. C. R. MURPHY, 30th Punjabis.

Arabic-speaking races, like other Orientals, are extremely fond of proverbs, and it is probable that their language contains a greater number of them than any other. A large collection of Arabic sayings generally was made by the writer during a stay of six months in Damascus; but in order to bring the list down to the limits of this article only those proverbs have been included which are actually current in Syria at the present day. Common ones, such as have already found their way into print, as well as those which might be considered either enigmatical or pornographic, have been omitted. It has been considered advisable to give translations of the Arabic proverbs rather than their equivalents, so as to preserve their national character as far as possible.

Damascus contains a larger Arabic-speaking population than any other city in the world. In fact the percentage of its 270,000 persons who do not speak Arabic is almost negligible. Since the days when Straight Street was thronged with Sunworshippers, its inhabitants have loved proverbs. The strange thing is that, in a city of such extraordinary antiquity, anything should become obsolete. Yet many of the proverbs which one meets with in the Damascus libraries and bookshops one never hears used by the people nowadays. Only a few of these proverbs are also current in Egypt. Many of them, if a little obscure, are certainly curious. The collection may, therefore, prove an interesting one. My thanks are due to Abdo Effendi Kahil and Al-Anisah L. Kahil, of Damascus, and also to Mr. R. F. Azoo, of Calcutta, for their valuable assistance

- Let that profession die that does not show itself on its owner.
- 2. They invited a donkey to a wedding, so he said to himself:—"What do they want, fuel or water?"
- 3. If women were told that a wedding was taking place in Heaven, they would rise up and put ladders against the skies.
- 4. The writer has no mercy on the reader.
- 5. Some people write what God alone can explain.
- 6. A man's paradise is his home.
- 7. After dinner rest awhile, after supper walk a mile.
- 8. He who plays with the cat must expect a scratching.
- 9. Live for forty days with a tribe, and you will be in it and of it.
- A son was born to a blind couple, and they blinded his eves by touching them.
- 11. If you see a blind man push him; why should you be more merciful to him than his Creator?
- 12. Do no good and you will meet no evil.
- 13. Turn the jar over on its mouth, the girl grows like her mother.
- 14. A sparrow in the hand is worth ten in the tree.
- A loaf for a loaf; don't let your neighbour go to bed hungry.
- 16. He who lightens his head tires his feet.
- 17. Can't dance and says the ground is crooked.
- 18. Rise, O Man, and I will rise too.
- 19. The drum beats, and away goes the foolish girl on the wings of impatience.
- 20. The cat and the mouse agreed to ruin the house.
- 21. If the mice agreed they would soon ruin the Greengrocer's shop.
- 22. They said to a mule, "Who is your Father?" He replied, "My Uncle is a horse."
- 23. The girl without hair boasts about that of her cousin.
- 24. I am talking to you, Oh! My daughter-in-law, for your edification, Oh! My neighbour!
- 25. There was a great funeral, and the corpse was that of a dog.
- 26. He is behind and he only walks where there are stones.
- 27. Every rising has a falling.
- 28. Wish good to your neighbour and you will find it in your own house.
- 29. Whilst I am on this mat it is not too long and not too short.
- 30. According to the length of your carpet stretch your feet.
- 31. The horse you have just got off let the people ride.

- لاعاش كار مايبان على اهله *
- و دعوا الحمار الىعرس فقال يلزمهم حطب او ماء *
- م لو قيل للساء إن في السماء عرساً لفهضن لرفع السلالم اليه *
 - الكاتب ما يرحم القاري *
 - ه في ناس عليهم الكتابة وعلى الله القفسير .
 - * جنة الإنسان بيته
 - ٧ تعشى وتبشى تغدى وتبدى *
 - الذي يلاعب القط يصبر لخراميشه *
 - و عاشر القوم اربعين يوم تصير واحد منهم *
 - ١ جاء للعمدان صبى قلعوا عيومه باللمس *
- 11 لو شفت الاعمى طبو (طبه) لست ارسم صن ربو (ربه) *
 - ١٦ خير لاتعمل شرما يتلقى *
 - سرر طب الجرة على فمها تطلع البذت الممها *
 - عرا عصفور باليد ولا عشوة على الشجرة *
 - ه ا رعيف برعيف ولايدات جارك جوءان .
 - ۱۹ من خفف راسه اتعب رجليه *
 - ١٧ هلى ما بيعرف يرقص يقول الارض عوجا *
 - ١٨ قوم ياعددي فاقوم صعك *
 - 19 دق الطبل ما بقى للرعدًا صبر *
 - وم انفق القط والفار على خواب الدار *
 - ri اذا اتفق الفار خرب دكان البقال *
 - ٢٦ قالوا للبغل ص ابوك قال خالى الحصان *
 - ٣٣ تكذت القوعا بشعر بذت خالقها *
 - عرى يحاكيك ياكذة تقسمعي ياجارة *
 - وم الجنازة حافلة والميت كلب *
 - ٢٩ مقصر وما يمشى الأفي الوعدة *
 - ٧٧ كل طلعة لها نزلة *
 - ٣٨ ريد الخير لجارك تلقالا في دارك *
 - ٢٩ طول ما أنا على ها لحصيرة لاطويلة ولا قصيرة *
 - . س على قدر بساطك مد رجليك *
 - m الفرس التي تنزل عنها خلى القوم تركبها *

 Let him who has no mother pitch a tent in the graveyard.

33. Leave your spare money for a black day.

- 34. An olive stone will keep a jar of a hundred rottles 1 from wobbling.
- 35. He beat me and wept, and then went about and accused me.
- 36. He who has treated you like himself has not misused you.
- 37. A promise without fulfilment is enmity without reason.
- 38. Low ground drinks its own water and other water as well.

39. Many trades, few paras.2

40. Every age plays with its own age.

41. By continual use the rope cuts the curbstone of the well.

42. Food left about teaches the people to steal.

- 43. A cockroach looked at her daughter on the wall. So she said: "How nice is the blackness of my daughter on the white wall!"
- 44. Live, Oh! Mule, till the grass grows.

45. I will water you with promises, Oh! Kamoon!8

46. One more hole in a strainer won't make any difference.

47. The eye of the lover is blind.

48. Writing is two-thirds of seeing.

49. The worms in vinegar are in it and of it.

- 50. God gives almonds to those who do not know how to crack them.
- 51. Your tongue is (like) your horse; if you take care of it, it will take care of you; if you ill-treat it, it will ill-treat you.

52. Every cock crows on his own dust-heap.

- 53. He who makes his mouthful too big, gets choked.
- 54. He who carries a pack-needle will prick himself.4

55. Smart clothes and empty pocket.

56. A mistress and two servants to fry two eggs.

57. A bald girl with two combs; and a one-eyed one with two phials of collyrium.

58. The fly knows the face of the milkman.

- 59. A man is a blessing in a house even though he be a negro.
- 60. Who is afraid for the cat in the larder lest the mice should eat her ears?

¹ The Damascus رطل =5 lb.

² The doth of a piastre.

⁸ A plant of the fennel kind.

[•] Pack-needles are often carried, and used as goads for donkeys.

- ٣٦ هلى ما عنده ميمة ينصب في القبر خيمة *
 - ٣٣ خلي درهمك الابيض ليومك الاسود .
 - عرم بزرة زيتوه تسند خابية قنطارية *
 - ه م ضربنی وبکی سیقنی و اشتکی ،
 - ٣٩ من ساواك بذفسه ما ظلمك *
 - ٣٧ وهد بلا وفا عداوة بلا سبب *
 - ٣٨ الارض الواطية تشوب ماءها وماء غيرها *
 - pg كثيرالكارات قليل الدارات
 - عم ل جيل مع جيله بلعب
 - اع الحبل مع الدّكوار يقطع خرزة البير *

 - ١٤٢ الرزق المقروك يعلم الذاس الحوام *
- سعم الخنفسة شافت بنتها على الحيط قالت ياما احلى سواد بنتي علي بدافي الخيط *
 - عهم ميش ياكديش حتى ينبت الحشيش *
 - هع اسقیک بالوعد یاکمون *
 - وعر المصفاية لا يميقها ثقب *
 - ٧٤ عين المحب عمياء *
 - ٨٠٠ المكاتبة ثلثين المشاهدة ...
 - وع دود العل مذه وفيه .
 - ١ الله يطعم اللوز للذي لايموف يكسولا *
 - 16 لسانك حصانك أن صدنه صنك وأن خنته خانك «
 - ۱۰ کل دیك على مزبلته صیاح *
 - مه اللي بيكبر لقمته بيدقص *
 - عره اللي فيه مسلة تذخره *
 - ه قامة مسفولة والجيبة ما فيها قولة *
 - ۴٥ ست وجاريتين على قلى بيضتهن *
 - ۵۷ قرعا بمشطین و عورا بهکحلتین *
 - ٨٠ الدبان بيعرف دقن اللبان *
 - وه رجال فحمة في البيت رحمة *
 - و ملى بيخاف من مونة القط الفار تاكل كذانه .

- 61. Take girls from the breasts of their aunts.
- 62. You are fit for me and I for you; the times have made us successful.
- Look to high birth even though there be poverty. 63.
- 64. Accept hospitality from the man who once had wealth, and not from the man who has acquired it recently.
- 65. Give the dough to the baker even if he eats half of it.
- 66. If you want peace, say of everything you see: "It is good.''
- 67. A beggar, and makes conditions!
- 68. He killed the dead and then went to the funeral.
- 69. From want of men they called the cock Abu Ali.
- 70. From lack of horses they put saddles on dogs.
- 71. I love you, Oh! My bracelet, but not as much as my wrist.
- 72. Better an agreement in the harvest-field than a quarrel on the threshing-floor.
- 73. Train your dog, and he will bite you (all the same).
- 74. A running stream, and not a dry river.
- 75. They threw a pailful of leban over a Jew, and he said: "By my Religion, I like it!"
- 76. The son of a dog is a pup, and that of a lion a whelp.
- 77. A one-eyed man is a king amongst the blind.
- 78. Don't live near an ignorant divine.
- 79. The dread of a calamity is worse than the calamity itself.
- 80. He who catches a fox is more cunning than it.
- If the prayers of dogs were heard the heavens would 81. rain bones.
- 82. Two dogs fight over a bone, whilst a third one carries it off and runs away.
- 83. A man's value is the value of what he possesses.
- He who does not place himself above the ignorant, 84. places the ignorant above him.
- 85. Time creates and time destroys.
- 86. The bride is at the dressmaker's, and the bridegroom is at the jeweller's. Why are the people talking?
- 87. If a thief gets no chance of stealing, he begins to think himself virtuous.
- 88. The longer the friendship, the stronger.
- 89. If the pitcher falls on a stone, woe to the pitcher; if a stone falls on the pitcher, woe to the pitcher; whatever happens, woe to the pitcher.
- 90. Curse a man for his errors.
- 91. Ask the man of experience, and not the man of learning.

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اذاسقط الابريق على الحجر فويل للابريق واذا سقط الحجر على الابريق A 9 فوبل للأريق فمهما حصل ويل للابويق .

سب الموء مما فيد نوعجم *

اسال مجرب ولاتسال حكيم * 91

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92. Don't fatten your dog lest he should eat you.

93. Hope is only extinguished by death.

94. Don't ask the singer to sing, nor the dancer to dance.

95. From under the leak to under the water-spout.

- 96. He who loves you makes you cry, and he who hates you makes you laugh.
- 97. A miller will not throw dust on a lime-burner.

98. Waste your money, but not your soul.

- 99. Go near a roaring river, but not a still one.
- 100. Oh! departing one, do many good things.

1 Cf. the Persian :-- از باران ناودان گریخت-- C. M.

- وو لاتشحم كلبك فياكلك .
- مه الا تخرج النفس عن الأمل حتى تدخل في الأجل *
 - عه لا تقل للمغذى غذي ولا للرقاص ارقص *
 - ه و من الدنف تعت البزراب *
 - ٩٩ من احبك بكال ومن ابغضك ضحكك *
 - ٩٧ طحان لايغبر على كلاس *
 - ٩٨ اهن فلسك ولاتهن نفسك *
 - و و اقدم على نهو عجاج ولاتقدم على نهو هادى *
 - ١٠٠ يارايي كثر ملايي *

38. New and Revised Species of Gramineæ from Bombay.

By R. K. BHIDE, Assistant Economic Botanist, Bombay.

(With Four Plates).

I first took up the critical study of the grasses of the Bombay Presidency in 1907, while assisting Mr. G. A. Gammie, then Economic Botanist, in his work: and since then I have been steadily engaged in this study. The following note deals with some forms that seemed to me to be new or wrongly named. Dr. Stapf of Kew was good enough to examine the specimens and express opinions on them; and I am deeply indebted to him for his kind assistance. I am also indebted to Mr. W. Burns, B.Sc., Economic Botanist, Bombay, who kindly translated my original English descriptions of the following species into Latin.

Pars prima diagnostica latine.

DANTHONIA GAMMIEI, Bhide.

Culmi 10-20 cm. alti, nodis glabris. Foliorum vaginae glabrae; laminae lineares, inferne glabrae, superne parce longiciliatae, 2.5-5 cm. longae, 2.3 mm. latae, basibus rotundis nec truncatis; ligula angustissima, truncata, fimbriata, membranacea. Pedunculae et rhachides hirsutae. Paniculae laxae, racemosae, 2.5-5 cm. longae, 12-16 mm. latae. Spiculae paucae, breviter pedicellatae, circa 2 cm. longae (aristis exclusis). Glumae quatuor, quarta multo minima: prima et secunda glumae vacuae, lanceolatae, acuminatae: prima conspicue 5-nervis, dorso rotundo glabro subcoriacea, marginibus membranaces: secunda circa tertia parte minor, membrancea, 3-nervia: tertia (arista exclusa) florem ferens, primâ secundâ multo minor, teres, convoluta, 7-9-nervis, in dorso ubique villosa, bidentata, dense hirsuta dorso, aristâ conspicue latâ mediali ornata, aristae columnâ aureo-flavâ torta scintillanti, aristae caudâ minute scabridâ dorso anguste 2-canali; dentes in aristis parvis tenuibus prolongati mediae aristae columnam aequantibus basi pilis longis albis ornatis. Palea glumam aequans, bidentata, bicarinata, carinis superne ciliatis inferne contractis cum rhachilla producta conjunctis. Gluma quarta minima, ciliata, aristata vel non-aristata ex rhachillâ hane loci orta est. Stamina 3. Styli 2, distincti. Germen compressum, glabrum. Antherae et stigmata plumosa glumae

Of honours he has many. His own country made him a Geheimer Regierungsrat in 1894, and later a Geheimer Ober-Regierungsrat, and the University of Cambridge, England, gave him a Doctor's degree in 1904.

He has travelled widely for the sake of studying vegetation. He has been in North Africa, East Africa, South Africa,

India and Java.

His publications are very numerous. First of all, as a systematic botanist he has monographed many groups of plants. Such work he considers, as it truly is, spade work for other studies, the chief of his more philosophical contributions to science being in Geographic Botany. His early studies were in Saxifrages-mountain plants, whose interrupted distribution through the world, is bound up with climatic changes over geologic periods. This work led forward to his Attempt at a History of the development of the Plant world, specially of Floral regions since the Tertiary period, 2 vols. (1879-1882); and this again is connected with his Development of plant geography in the last century, and further connected propositions (1899).2

His chapter entitled Erläuterungen zu der Übersicht über die Embryophyta siphonogama in the Nachträge to his Naturliche Pflanzenfamilien is an attempt to indicate true affinities in the

Higher plants.

Professor Engler has shown a most remarkable administrative ability. He has drawn the botanists of his own country, Austria, Italy, Scandinavia and from even further afield, who work at systematic and geographical Botany, into such harmony that under his editorship the "Naturliche Pflanzenfamilien" has been produced, and now the "Pflanzenreich" and volumes entitled "Vegetation der Erde" are appearing. The first work defines the genera of all the plants of the world from lowest to highest and is copiously illustrated. The second is a series of monographs of groups of plants, and the third is a series of treatises on the vegetation of selected areas. The number of the scientists who have contributed to these works is a tribute to the genius, and is evidence of the wide trust placed in Dr. Engler.

Lastly, it is to be added that Dr. Engler has carried out, since he was called to Berlin, the removal of the University Botanic Garden from a smoky square in that great city to a suburb, where it is now a large working concern not altogether

unlike Kew.

[I. H. BURKILL.]

² Entwicklung der Pflanzen-Geographie in der letzten hundert Jahren und weitere Aufgaben denselben.

¹ Versuch einer Entwicklungsgeschichte der Pflanzenwelt inbesonbere der Florengebeite siet der Tertiarperiode.

Alfred William Alcock was born in England in 1859 and was educated at Westminster School. After some years spent in India he took up the study of medicine in the University of Aberdeen, in which he was appointed Assistant Professor of Zoology in 1883. In 1885 he joined the Indian Medical Service, and from 1886 to 1888 served as medical officer with the Punjab Frontier Force. He was appointed Surgeon Naturalist to the Marine Survey of India in the latter year and held the post for four years, being appointed Superintendent of the Indian Museum and Professor of Zoology in the Calcutta Medical College in 1893, a joint post which he vacated for a short time to serve with the Pamir Boundary Commission of 1895. It was not until 1907, however, that he finally retired both from his scientific appointments in Calcutta and from the Indian Medical Service. Shortly after returning to England he was appointed Professor of Arthropodology in the London School of Tropical Medicine, a chair which he still occupies.

The value of Col. Alcock's zoological work has been recognized by the distinctions he has received in Europe. He is a Fellow of the Royal Society, an LL.D. (honoris causa) of the University of Aberdeen, a Corresponding Member of the Zoological Society of the Netherlands and of the Californian Academy of Sciences. He was honoured in India by being appointed a Companion of the Order of the Indian Empire. On his retirement he held the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel in

the Indian Medical Service.

Over sixty separate papers on zoological subjects were written by Col. Alcock in India, his attention having been directed in particular to the crustacea and the fish of deep water. Since leaving this country he has contributed a valuable account of the freshwater crabs, in which the classification of the family is entirely reorganized, to the "Catalogue of Indian Decapod Crustacea" published by the Indian Museum. He has also organized his department and delivered courses of lectures in the Seamen's Hospital at the Royal Albert Docks with a skill and enthusiasm that have proved of the greatest benefit to medical men desirous of obtaining zoological knowledge of practical application in connection with the exercise of their profession in India and other tropical countries, and we may soon expect from his accurate and graphic pen a textbook of medical zoology such as perhaps no other living man possesses the combined experience, theoretical knowledge and literary skill to write.

Last but not least among his services to the science of zoology must be reckoned the work he did for the Asiatic Society of Bengal. Not only were his papers for several years the most important contributed to our "Journal" so far as zoology was concerned, but he served as an officer of the

during dissection, with the first glume, and actually remains enclosed in it. The fact that this so-called pale is one-nerved and not two-keeled is an indication of its true nature. The possession of four glumes therefore puts this specimen out of *Woodrowia*. It is clearly a species of *Dimeria*. Dr. Stapf considers this diagnosis correct. I thought it to be *D. gracilis* Nees; but he informs me it is *D. diandra*, Stapf.

DANTHONIA GAMMIEI, Bhide.

Collected by G. A. Gammie at Castle rock in October, 1902.

Description:—Stem 4-12 inches long: nodes glabrous: leaves linear, glabrous below, sparsely long-ciliate above, 1-3 inches by 10-18 inch, base rounded or truncate: ligule a very narrow truncate fimbriate membrane. sheaths glabrous: upper leaves very much reduced in size. Peduncle and rachis hairy: panicle lax, racemose, 1-2 inches by $\frac{1}{2}-\frac{2}{3}$. Spikelets few, shortly pedicelled, about 3 inch long excluding the awns. Glumes 3, with an extremely minute 4th. Glumes I and II empty, lanceolate, acuminate; 1 strongly 5-nerved dorsally. rounded, glabrous, sub-coriaceous, margins membranous. II 1 shorter than 1, membranous, 3-nerved. III flowering, (without the awns) much smaller than I and II, terete, convolute, 7-9 nerved, dorsally villous all over, 2 toothed with a stout broad median awn; column of awn golden yellow twisted and shining; tail minutely scabrid, dorsally narrowly two channelled; teeth produced into small slender awns reaching as long as the column of the median awn, with a fringe of long white hairs at the junction of the lateral awns with the glume; pale as long as the glume, 2-toothed; 2-keeled, keels ciliate above and contracted and fusing below with the produced rachilla* (?), and producing a minute ciliate awned or awnless glume (IV). Stamens 3, styles 2, distinct; grain compressed glabrous; anthers and plumose stigmas protruding from the top of flowering glume. Lodicules membranous 1 as long as the anthers oblong emarginate. The flowering glume (III) has a densely bearded callus.

*Dr. Stapf considers it should be described as having the rachilla produced and terminating with a minute ciliate awned or awnless barren glume. Dr. Stapf does not find that this rachilla is actually joined to the back of the pale, although, as he says, it is closely adpressed to it and may perhaps sometimes adhere to it. He considers it a new species and I have, therefore, named it D. Gammiei after Mr. G. A. Gammie, now Imperial Cotton Specialist.

Andropogon Paranjpyeanum, Bhide.

Collected by R. K. Bhide at Castle rock, on 21st October, 1909.

Vol. VII, No. 8.] New and Revised Species of Gramineæ, [N.S.]

Description: —A delicate-looking grass, stems slender, erect, 1-11 foot long: upper nodes pubescent: leaves 1-3 inches by $\frac{1}{10}$ inch, subcordate at base, hairy on both sides with long slender hairs, the margins thickened and minutely irregularly repand and spinulosely serrulate: sheathes glabrous: ligule a short erose membrane. Racemes solitary, ½-1 inch long (without the awns), on a very slender peduncle: sessile spikelets inch long; glumes 4. I oblong, obtuse, faintly 5-7-nerved, glabrous, margins narrowly incurved, keels shortly ciliate at the apex: II just a little longer than 1, 3-nerved, oblong, apiculate: III shorter than I and II, hyaline and with ciliate margins, epaleate: IV the narrow base of the awn, just a little more than half as long as I, obscurely margined and 1-nerved with two obscure narrow lobes at the apex, and an interposed slender twisted scabrid awn about 11 inch long, bearing a bisexual flower. Pedicelled spikelets about \(\frac{1}{6} \) inch long: glume I oblong, obtuse, 7-9-nerved, margins incurved and broadly winged at the keels, wings shortly ciliate towards the apex: II a little shorter than I, oblong, acute, 3-nerved, margins ciliate: III shorter than II, hyaline, ciliate, faintly 3-5-nerved, epaleate, male; joints and pedicels compressed more or less obscurely channelled (?), obliquely truncate, ½-3 as long as the sessile spikelets and ciliate with short white hairs on both sides.

Dr. Stapf agrees that this is a new species of Andropogon (Eremopogon), and I have named it A. Paranjpyeanum after my colleague Mr. H. P. Paranjpye, B.A., Assistant Economic Botanist.

ENTEROPOGON BADAMICUM, Bhide.

Collected by R. K. Bhide, at Badami, on the fort above the caves, in September, 1909.

Description:—Stems 2-21 feet, slender, erect, glabrous: leaves narrow, 4-7 inches by $\frac{1}{8}-\frac{1}{4}$ inch. tapering to a fine accumination, glabrous: sheaths glabrous, finely long-ciliate at the mouth and sides; ligule a short membrane with a fine fringe of hairs. Spike solitary, terminal, 6 inches long. Spikelets two-seriate and secund on a flattened trigonous slightly scabrid rachis, subsessile or very shortly pedicelled; glumes I and II persistent, empty, scarious, 1-nerved, glabrous or very minutely puberulous, I less than half of II, more or less unequal sided and sometimes slightly lobed on one side, ovate, subacute and erose at the apex. II shortly unequally two-toothed at the apex with a short mucro between. III flowering, slightly longer than II, two-toothed at the apex, 3-nerved with a dorsal stiff awn about as long as the glume, scabrid at the back and sides, ventrally grooved, the groove corresponding with the dorsal ridge which is continuous with the awn. Callus bearded with short white silky hairs, pale a little longer than the glume,

to the cause of indigenous learning by his able researches in Oriental Philosophy. He has edited the Tattva-Chintamani and the Chaturvarga-Chintamani published under the auspices of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, and is still editing the Commentary of Gadádhara on Siromani's Didhiti. His commentary on Udayanácharyya's Kusumanjali, which he published on his own account, will ever be regarded as a monument of his profound erudition and extraordinary attainments in Nyáya. It has been highly spoken of and appreciated by Pundits all over India. As a member of the Sahitya Sabhá, he has delivered a series of lectures in Bengali on Hindu Philosophy, which have evoked a new interest in the study of that difficult branch of knowledge amongst the educated public. The Government have been pleased to confer on him the high literary distinction of "Mahámahopádhyáya," and to grant him prolonged extension of service for nine years, in recognition of his sterling merits. He has lately retired from service. and by his retirement the Sanskrit College may well be said to have been shorn of a worthy pillar of strength.

[SATIS CHANDRA VIDYABHUSANA.]

The following gentlemen were balloted as Ordinary Members:—

Capt. William Macrae, R.E., Lower Ganges Bridge, Paksey (Pabna), Station Saraghat, proposed by Dr. T. H. Bishop, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Major A. Gwyther, M.B., F.R.C.S.E., I.M.S., Civil Surgeon, Howrah, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., seconded by Major J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.; Capt. A. H. Proctor, M.Ch., I.M.S., Resident Surgeon, Medical College, proposed by Lieut.-Col. J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., seconded by Major J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.; Mr. S. Maulik, Entomologist, Assistant to the Imperial Forest Zoologist, Research Institute, Dehra Dun, proposed by Dr. N. Annandale, seconded by Mr. F. H. Gravely; Mr. Gerald M. Young, I.C.S., proposed by the Hon. Mr. E. D. Maclagan, seconded by Dr. E. Denison Ross; Mr. Habib-ur-Rahman Khan, Telegraph Dept., Allahabad, proposed by Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott, seconded by Hon. Mr. Abdulla al-Mamun Suhrawardy.

Dr. Fermor exhibited some minerals collected during excursions of the XIth International Geological Congress held in Sweden in 1910. Many famous mines were visited in Swedish Lapland, in the Stockholm Archipelago, and in Central Sweden. The most interesting of the many fine and rare mineral specimens obtained are the following:—

(1) The rare-earth minerals fergusonite and gadolinite from the Ytterby felspar mine, the original locality for the yttrium earths, these two minerals containing between them the following rare elements:—beryllium, cerium, didymium, erbium, lanthanum, niobium, tantalum, thorium, uranium, and yttrium.

(2) Petalite, a lithium silicate from the Uto lithia mine,

the original locality for the element lithium.

(3) Galenobismuthite, containing about 13 per cent. of

selenium, from the Falun copper mine.

(4) A great variety of minerals from the Långban manganese-iron mine, perhaps the most famous mineral locality in the world, for it has, with Nordmark, yielded some forty-eight minerals not found elsewhere. The minerals collected here comprise native lead; the following silicates containing manganese (varieties of manganskarn), schefferite, rhodonite richterite, tephroite, inesite; the silicate of lead, barysilite; the lead-manganese silicate, kentrolite; the arsenates of manganese, berzeliite, allactite; the lead-manganese arsenate, caryinite; the lead arsenates, hedyphane, ecdemite; also the oxides of manganese, hausmannite and braunite; and finally the borate of manganese and magnesium, pinakiolite.

(5) Ganomalite, a lead-manganese silicate, and piedmontite, the manganese-epidote, from the Jakobsberg manganese mine.

(6) Pyrosmalite, an iron-manganese silicate, and beautiful crystals of diopside, calcite, and magnetite, from the Nordmark iron mines.

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The Pedipalpi are an Order of Arachnida which take their name from the fact that the first pair of legs are antenniform

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- G. Ovary, stamens and lodicules.
- H. Glume IV.

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- I. Pale of Glume IV.
- J. Ovary, stamens and lodicules.
- K. Glume III with the rachilla produced beyond it and the upper flower.
- L. Part of spike.
- M. Ligule.

AUGUST, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 2nd August, 1911, at 9-15 p.m.

COLONEL G. F. A. HARRIS, I.M.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Maulvi Abdul Wali, Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. A. C. Atkinson, Mr. I. H. Burkill, Dr. L. L. Fermor, Mr. F. H. Gravely, Hon. Mr. H. G. Graves, Mr. K. A. K. Hallowes, Mr. H. H. Hayden, Hon. Mr. Justice H. Holmwood, Mr. D. Hooper, Dr. G. D. Hope, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Mr. J. Insch, Mr. J. C. R. Johnston, Mr. S. N. Kemp, Mr. W. Kirkpatrick, Mr. J. Walter Leather, Captain R. B. Seymour Sewell, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, Mr. H. Walker.

Visitors:—Mrs. Atkinson, Mr. N. Z. Bravine, Mrs. Fermor, Mr. G. Fox, Mrs. Kirkpatrick.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed. Twenty-seven presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported the death of Prof. Charles Meldrum, Special Honorary Centenary Member of the Society.

The General Secretary also reported the death of Prof. J. A. Cunningham and Mr. C. H. Browning, Ordinary Members of the Society.

The General Secretary also reported that Mr. J. R. Barrow and Mr. J. R. Cunningham have expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The Council reported that there were five vacancies in the list of Honorary Fellows, and the Council therefore recommended Dr. A. Engler, Lieut.-Colonel A. W. Alcock, Sir Clements Markham, Prof. E. G. Browne and Mahāmahopādhyāya Kāmākhyā Nāth Tarkabāgis, for election as Honorary Fellows.

Dr. A. Engler was born in Silesia in 1844, and took his Doctor's degree at Breslau in 1866. In the same year he became Reader in Botany at the Magdalenum Gymnasium in Breslau. In 1871 he became Keeper of the State Institute in Munich, in 1878 Professor of Botany at Kiel, in 1884 Professor of Systematic Botany in Breslau, and in 1889 Professor of Systematic Botany in the University of Berlin and Director of the Imperial Botanic Gardens and Museums—which two posts he holds still.

Of honours he has many. His own country made him a Geheimer Regierungsrat in 1894, and later a Geheimer Ober-Regierungsrat, and the University of Cambridge, England, gave him a Doctor's degree in 1904.

He has travelled widely for the sake of studying vegetation. He has been in North Africa, East Africa, South Africa,

India and Java.

His publications are very numerous. First of all, as a systematic botanist he has monographed many groups of plants. Such work he considers, as it truly is, spade work for other studies, the chief of his more philosophical contributions to science being in Geographic Botany. His early studies were in Saxifrages-mountain plants, whose interrupted distribution through the world, is bound up with climatic changes over geologic periods. This work led forward to his Attempt at a History of the development of the Plant world, specially of Floral regions since the Tertiary period, 2 vols. (1879—1882); and this again is connected with his Development of plant geography in the last century, and further connected propositions (1899).2

His chapter entitled Erläuterungen zu der Übersicht über die Embryophyta siphonogama in the Nachträge to his Naturliche Pflanzenfamilien is an attempt to indicate true affinities in the

Higher plants.

Professor Engler has shown a most remarkable administrative ability. He has drawn the botanists of his own country, Austria, Italy, Scandinavia and from even further afield, who work at systematic and geographical Botany, into such harmony that under his editorship the "Naturliche Pflanzenfamilien" has been produced, and now the "Pflanzenreich" and volumes entitled "Vegetation der Erde" are appearing. The first work defines the genera of all the plants of the world from lowest to highest and is copiously illustrated. The second is a series of monographs of groups of plants, and the third is a series of treatises on the vegetation of selected areas. The number of the scientists who have contributed to these works is a tribute to the genius, and is evidence of the wide trust placed in Dr. Engler.

Lastly, it is to be added that Dr. Engler has carried out, since he was called to Berlin, the removal of the University Botanic Garden from a smoky square in that great city to a suburb, where it is now a large working concern not altogether

unlike Kew.

[I. H. BURKILL.]

² Entwicklung der Pflanzen-Geographie in der letzten hundert Jah-

ren und weitere Aufgaben denselben.

¹ Versuch einer Entwicklungsgeschichte der Pflanzenwelt inbesonbere der Florengebeite siet der Tertiarperiode.

Alfred William Alcock was born in England in 1859 and was educated at Westminster School. After some years spent in India he took up the study of medicine in the University of Aberdeen, in which he was appointed Assistant Professor of Zoology in 1883. In 1885 he joined the Indian Medical Service, and from 1886 to 1888 served as medical officer with the Punjab Frontier Force. He was appointed Surgeon Naturalist to the Marine Survey of India in the latter year and held the post for four years, being appointed Superintendent of the Indian Museum and Professor of Zoology in the Calcutta Medical College in 1893, a joint post which he vacated for a short time to serve with the Pamir Boundary Commission of 1895. It was not until 1907, however, that he finally retired both from his scientific appointments in Calcutta and from the Indian Medical Service. Shortly after returning to England he was appointed Professor of Arthropodology in the London School of Tropical Medicine, a chair which he still occupies.

The value of Col. Alcock's zoological work has been recognized by the distinctions he has received in Europe. He is a Fellow of the Royal Society, an LL.D. (honoris causa) of the University of Aberdeen, a Corresponding Member of the Zoological Society of the Netherlands and of the Californian Academy of Sciences. He was honoured in India by being appointed a Companion of the Order of the Indian Empire. On his retirement he held the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel in

the Indian Medical Service.

Over sixty separate papers on zoological subjects were written by Col. Alcock in India, his attention having been directed in particular to the crustacea and the fish of deep water. Since leaving this country he has contributed a valuable account of the freshwater crabs, in which the classification of the family is entirely reorganized, to the "Catalogue of Indian Decapod Crustacea" published by the Indian Museum. He has also organized his department and delivered courses of lectures in the Seamen's Hospital at the Royal Albert Docks with a skill and enthusiasm that have proved of the greatest benefit to medical men desirous of obtaining zoological knowledge of practical application in connection with the exercise of their profession in India and other tropical countries, and we may soon expect from his accurate and graphic pen a textbook of medical zoology such as perhaps no other living man possesses the combined experience, theoretical knowledge and literary skill to write.

Last but not least among his services to the science of zoology must be reckoned the work he did for the Asiatio Society of Bengal. Not only were his papers for several years the most important contributed to our "Journal" so far as zoology was concerned, but he served as an officer of the

Society for a considerable period, having been elected Natural History Secretary in 1888, General Secretary in 1895, and Vice-President in 1901. It is hardly to the credit of the Society that he never occupied the President's chair.

[NELSON ANNANDALE.]

SIR CLEMENTS ROBERT MARKHAM, K.C.B., F.R.S., D.Sc.

Born at Stillingfleet near York, July 20, 1830. Educated at Westminster School. He was appointed a naval cadet in 1844, and served in the Arctic Expedition in search of Sir John Franklin in 1850—51. He explored Peru and the forests of the E. Andes in 1852-54. In 1854 he was appointed to a clerkship in the Board of Control, India Office. From 1859 to 1862 he organized an expedition to South America to collect cinchona plants and seeds, and succeeded in transferring them to India. He selected sites for the plantations in India including those in the Darjeeling district and the Nilgiri Hills, where at the present time there are extensive cinchona estates and quinine factories. He continued to hold various appointments in the India Office, where he had charge of all correspondence relating to cinchona and quinine, and all despatches of the Secretary of State on the subjects written between 1862 to 1877 were drafted by Mr. Markham. The correspondence was ordered to be printed by the House of Commons, and is comprised in five large Blue Books. His taste for botany, archæology and ethnology, which he developed in his early years, placed him high in the scientific world. He was Secretary and President of the Hakluyt Society, Secretary and President for many years of the Royal Geographical Society. He has published many works on history, science and travel, including "a Memoir of the Indian Surveys," "Travels in India and Peru," "Peruvian Bark," "History of Persia," "Missions to Thibet." He is now engaged on a translation of Garcia de Orta's "Coloquios." In electing Sir Clements Markham to an Honorary Fellowship the Society recognizes the specially valuable service rendered to India and the East in successfully introducing the cultivation of cinchona into this country fifty years ago. D. HOOPER.]

Edward Granville Browne, M.A., M.B., M.B.C.S., L.B.C.P., M.B.A.S., F.B.A.; Lecturer in Persian, 1882—1902; Sir Thomas Adams Professor of Arabic since 1902; Fellow of Pembroke Coll., Camb., since 1887; Fellow of British Academy, 1903. Graduated at Cambridge in Natural Sciences Tripos, 1882; Indian Languages Tripos, 1884. Studied Oriental Languages in Cambridge, 1879—84; London, 1884—87; travelled in

Persia, 1887—88. Publications: A Traveller's Narrative, written to illustrate the Episode of the Bāb, Persian text and English translation, with notes, 1891; A Year amongst the Persians, 1893; The New History of Mīrzā 'Alī Muḥammad the Bāb, translated from the Persian, 1893; Catalogue of Persian MSS. in Cambridge University Library, 1896; Hand-list of the Muhammadan MSS. in the same library, 1900; critical edition of Dawlatshāh's Tadhkira, 1901; do. of 'Awfi's Lubābu'l-Albāb, 1903; Literary History of Persia until the time of Firdawsī; continuation of same until the Mongol Invasion, 1906; abridged translation of Ibn Isfandiyār's History of Tabaristān; Short Account of Recent Events in Persia, 1909; besides numerous Papers in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society from 1889 to the present time.

[D. C. PHILLOTT.]

Mahámahopádháyaya Kamakhya Nath Tarkavagisa was born at Protappore, a village in the district of Hooghly, in the year 1848. He comes of a respectable family of Pundits distinguished as much for their learning as for the sanctity of their manners. In conformity with the time-honoured practice and traditions of the family, Pundit Kamakhya Nath was initiated into Sanskrit Grammar and literature at a very early age. Kamakhya Nath evinced in the days of his pupilage those transcendental qualities of the head which have won for him the foremost rank among Pundits in this country. At the tender age of fourteen he left his native village for Navadwipa in order to prosecute his studies in Nyáya, and there his intellect derived its principal sap and nourishment from the great classical soil of Sanskrit learning. He read Nyáya with the late Mahámahopádhyáya Bhuban Mohan Vidyáratna, and was dubbed by him with the title of "Tarkavágisa." After finishing his course of studies in Smriti and Vedanta he came down to Calcutta at the age of twenty-eight, where he opened a Tol and offered gratuitous instruction to his pupils with free quarters and board. He entered into the service of Government at the age of thirty-four, as Assistant Professor of Hindu Logic at the Calcutta Sanskrit College, and was elevated to the chair of Nyáya on the retirement of the late Mahámahopádhyáya Mahesa Chandra Nyáyaratna, C.I.E.

As a teacher and exponent of Hindu Philosophy, Pundit Kamakhya Nath has been highly successful. He is universally regarded as a specialist in Nyáya, and his widespread fame and popularity are in a great measure due to his quite original method of teaching that most abstruse branch of Hindu Philosophy. He is looked upon as a referee whose word is law in matters of Shastric interpretation as well as in the solution of difficult social and religious problems. He has done good service

to the cause of indigenous learning by his able researches in Oriental Philosophy. He has edited the Tattva-Chintamani and the Chaturvarga-Chintamani published under the auspices of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, and is still editing the Commentary of Gadádhara on Siromani's Didhiti. His commentary on Udayanacharyya's Kusumanjali, which he published on his own account, will ever be regarded as a monument of his profound erudition and extraordinary attainments in Nyáya. It has been highly spoken of and appreciated by Pundits all over India. As a member of the Sahitua Sabhá, he has delivered a series of lectures in Bengali on Hindu Philosophy, which have evoked a new interest in the study of that difficult branch of knowledge amongst the educated public. The Government have been pleased to confer on him the high literary distinction of "Mahámahopádhyáya," and to grant him prolonged extension of service for nine years, in recognition of his sterling merits. He has lately retired from service, and by his retirement the Sanskrit College may well be said to have been shorn of a worthy pillar of strength.

[SATIS CHANDRA VIDYABHUSANA.]

The following gentlemen were balloted as Ordinary Members:—

Capt. William Macrae, R.E., Lower Ganges Bridge, Paksey (Pabna), Station Saraghat, proposed by Dr. T. H. Bishop, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Major A. Gwyther, M.B., F.R.C.S.E., I.M.S., Civil Surgeon, Howrah, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., seconded by Major J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.; Capt. A. H. Proctor, M.Ch., I.M.S., Resident Surgeon, Medical College, proposed by Lieut.-Col. J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., seconded by Major J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.; Mr. S. Maulik, Entomologist, Assistant to the Imperial Forest Zoologist, Research Institute, Dehra Dun, proposed by Dr. N. Annandale, seconded by Mr. F. H. Gravely; Mr. Gerald M. Young, I.C.S., proposed by the Hon. Mr. E. D. Maclagan, seconded by Dr. E. Denison Ross; Mr. Habib-ur-Rahman Khan, Telegraph Dept., Allahabad, proposed by Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott, seconded by Hon. Mr. Abdulla al-Mamun Suhrawardy.

Dr. Fermor exhibited some minerals collected during excursions of the XIth International Geological Congress held in Sweden in 1910. Many famous mines were visited in Swedish Lapland, in the Stockholm Archipelago, and in Central Sweden. The most interesting of the many fine and rare mineral specimens obtained are the following:—

(1) The rare-earth minerals fergusonite and gadolinite from the Ytterby felspar mine, the original locality for the yttrium earths, these two minerals containing between them the following rare elements:—beryllium, cerium, didymium, erbium, lanthanum, niobium, tantalum, thorium, uranium, and yttrium.

(2) Petalite, a lithium silicate from the Utö lithia mine,

the original locality for the element lithium.

(3) Galenobismuthite, containing about 13 per cent of

selenium, from the Falun copper mine.

(4) A great variety of minerals from the Långban manganese-iron mine, perhaps the most famous mineral locality in the world, for it has, with Nordmark, yielded some forty-eight minerals not found elsewhere. The minerals collected here comprise native lead; the following silicates containing manganese (varieties of manganskarn), schefferite, rhodonite, richterite, tephroite, inesite; the silicate of lead, barysilite; the lead-manganese silicate, kentrolite; the arsenates of manganese, berzeliite, allactite; the lead-manganese arsenate, caryinite; the lead arsenates, hedyphane, ecdemite; also the oxides of manganese, hausmannite and braunite; and finally the borate of manganese and magnesium, pinakiolite.

(5) Ganomalite, a lead-manganese silicate, and piedmontite, the manganese-epidote, from the Jakobsberg manganese mine.

(6) Pyrosmalite, an iron-manganese silicate, and beautiful crystals of diopside, calcite, and magnetite, from the Nordmark iron mines.

Dr. Hope exhibited and described *Poecilocoris latus*, Dall, an insect pest of tea.

This insect which feeds on tea seed has been known since the early days of the Indian tea industry. Mature and immature specimens and eggs will be shown and its feeding habits described.

Recent investigation has indicated that the insect is probably indirectly responsible for the damage which so often occurs to tea seed by the development of fungi in and between the cotyledons.

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The Medusa was taken by Mr. S. P. Agharkar of the Elphinstone College, Bombay, in small streams running in the Satara district into the Krishna river. It is probably identical with *Limnocnida tanganyicae*, a species hitherto found only in the great African lakes and at the mouth of the River Niger. The specific identity, however, must remain a little doubtful until fresh specimens have been examined.

Mr. Gravely exhibited living Pedipalpi and made the following remarks on the distribution of the Order.

The Pedipalpi are an Order of Arachnida which take their name from the fact that the first pair of legs are antenniform

and are used not for locomotion but as feelers. Although very abundant in some parts of the tropics their strictly nocturnal habits have led to their being overlooked to some extent, and there is still much to be learnt about them. The Order is subdivided into two Sub-orders (Oxopoei and Amblypygi) of which the latter contains one family only (Tarantulidae) and the former two (Thelyphonidae and Schizomidae). The Thelyphonidae are represented in the present exhibit by living specimens of Uroproctus Assamensis, a species found throughout Assam and the Eastern Himalayas at altitudes under about 4000 ft., and originally described by Dr. Stoliczka in the Journal of this Society. Members of this family construct burrows, usually under stones or logs of wood, and spend the day and all the dry weather in them, only coming out to seek their prey towards nightfall in wet weather. The Schizomidae are minute creatures not unlike the very much larger Thelyphonidae in general form, but with a short tail which is widened into a shovel-shaped structure in the male, and with very different arms. They live among dead leaves, grassroots, stones, etc., and like the Thelyphonidae they construct burrows for themselves They are here represented by Schizomus (Trythyreus) lunatus from the Indian Museum compound: this is the only species yet recorded from India proper. The Tarantulidae differ very greatly in form from the other two families, being spider-like rather than scorpion-like. They are unable to construct burrows for themselves, but are sometimes found in the burrows of other animals; usually they live under logs of wood, stones, etc., or in caves. They are here represented by Charinides bengalensis which is very abundant in piles of old bricks in sheltered places in Calcutta.

I am at present engaged in a detailed study of the distribution of the Pedipalpi of the Oriental Region and have already arrived at the following conclusions.—Taking first the Thelyphonidae, the denticulation of the first two joints of the arms is more variable than has commonly been supposed, and I have reason to believe that that of the first joint anyway has been determined by the long-continued action of climatic conditions; and it is noteworthy that almost all the other generic and specific characters are to be found in organs directly connected with the processes of reproduction. A somewhat parallel evolution in some of these organs appears to have taken place in different genera; and they are apparently a good index of the degree of specialization found in the several

species.

Turning now to those genera which are distinguished by the presence of a ridge on each side of the head, we find that a region including the islands of Sumatra, Java, Borneo, and Celebes is very much richer in species than any other locality; and with the exception of a single rare species all the forms found here are of the most highly specialized type. Species of Thelyphonus belonging to this most highly specialized type are dominant in the Malay Peninsular and Siam also, though here they are much fewer in number, but nowhere else unless it be in the Philippines. The further one looks from the neighbourhood of Borneo, however, the more frequently are less specialized forms met with, the least specialized of all being dominant only in Ceylon, the Indian Peninsular, the Eastern Himalayas, Assam, and Eastern China to the west and north. and in South America to the east; whilst a species specialized in an intermediate degree is dominant in the Liu Kiu Islands and Japan to the north-east; these being the limits of distribution of the family. This arrangement in what may be compared to a series of concentric semi-circles about the neighbourhood of Borneo leads me to conclude that at some period relatively simple forms such as Uroproctus assamensis and Theluphonus sepiaris existed and in all probability were confined to the neighbourhood of what is now Borneo; and that as more highly specialized forms were evolved the simpler ones were pushed further and further outwards.

The distribution of those Thelyphonidae which are distinguished from the ones already dealt with by the absence of ridges at the sides of the head between the median and lateral eyes, suggests that these were originally centred in much the same place as the others, and that they have been entirely pushed outwards by them; for they are now known with certainty only in the moister parts of Cevlon and the west coast of India, in and around Burma, and in S. America. When the migrations resulting in the present distribution of the family commenced therefore, the prototypes of the two principal divisions into which the Thelyphonidae naturally fall appear to have been already distinct from one another; and, from the minuteness with which (at most) any Thelyphonid departs from the fundamental form of the group to which it belongs, it may further be inferred that the external structure of each of these two prototypes was already extremely "fixed" —i.e. that these prototypes were already somewhat ancient species or groups of species. Their antiquity is also rendered highly probable by the fact that the closely allied Geralinuridae occur in the Coal Measures of Britain. The two prototypes of the Thelyphonidae as we know them to-day were probably therefore members of a more extensive group the rest of which have now entirely disappeared.

Concerning the distribution of the Schizomidae it is at present impossible to draw any very definite conclusions, as their small size has caused them to be much neglected and our knowledge of the number and distribution of existing species

is probably very incomplete.

The Tarantulidae fall into three sub-families, one of which is

purely American, one of which extends from East Africa across tropical Asia to Indo-China; whilst the remaining one extends from the Seychelles to Galapogos, being centred like the Thelyphonidae, in the Malaysian region. There is some indication that this last sub-family may also have spread outwards from the neighbourhood of Borneo; but the direction which their evolution has taken is less clearly indicated than in the Thelyphonidae, and the evidence is consequently inconclusive at present.

The following papers were read:

- 1. Ancient Monuments in Kashmir.—By Anand Koul.
- 2. Simhachelam Temple.—By S. P. V. RAMANUJA SVAMIN. Communicated by S. P. V. RANGANATHA SVAMIN.
- 3. Firoz Shah's Menagerie.—By Maulavi Qasim Hasir. Communicated by the Natural History Secretay.

The author called attention to the account by Shamsi-Siraj Afif, of curiosities brought to Faizabad by the Emperor Firoz Shah, to be on public view—two giants, a dwarf, two bearded women, a three-legged goat, a red-billed crow.

4. Gadadhara, Prince of Modern Schoolmen - By Dr. S. C. VIDYABHUSANA.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 9th August, 1911, at 9-30 p.m.

COLONEL G. F. A. HARRIS, I.M.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Lt.-Col. W. J. Buchanan, I.M.S., Dr. Gopal Chandra Chatterjee, Dr. K. K. Chatterjee, Dr. A. M. Leake, Dr. D. Quinlan, Captain E. D. Thurston, I.M.S., Major E. E. Waters, I.M.S., Major J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors: -Dr. R. K. Kacker, Dr. G. D. Pramanik.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

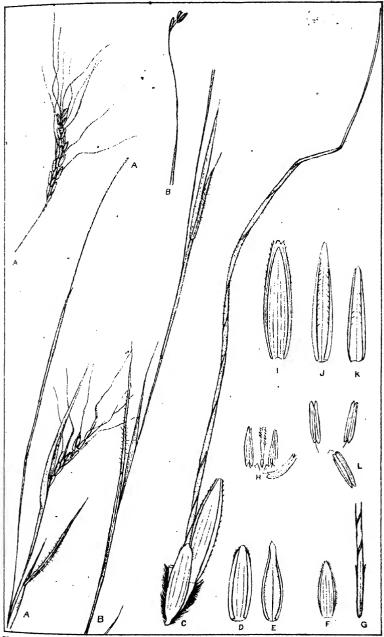
The following clinical cases were shown by Dr. G. C. Chatterjee:—

1. A case where an old injury to the lung by a splinter of wood had been followed by a peculiar train of symptoms, suggesting a temporary pneumothorax followed by partial collapse of the lung with subsequent fibrous and fetid bronchitis.

2. A case of Elephantiasis Graecorum in a young Indian male which showed marked improvement after eighteen injections of Nasten \mathbf{B}_1 .

A paper was read by Major Gwyther on the Treatment of Hydrocele by introduction of sterilized catgut into the sac after tapping.

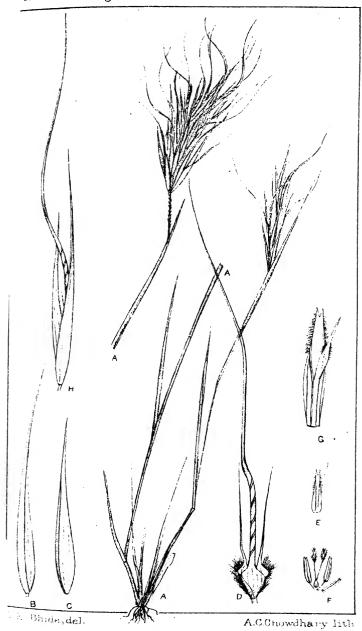
The paper was discussed by Col. Harris, Major Waters, Dr. K. K. Chatterjee, Capt. Thurston and Major Megaw.



R K.Bhide,del.

A.C.Chowdhary, lith.

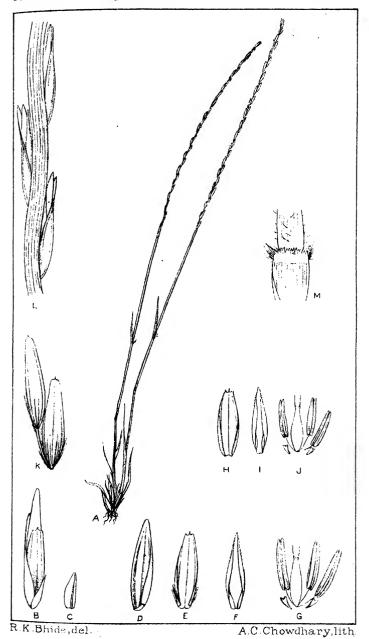
Andropogon Paranjpyeanum, Bhide.



Danthonia Gammiei, Bhide.



Enteropogon Badamıcum, Bhide.



Tripogon Roxburghianum, Bhide.

30. Shan and Palaung Jew's Harps from the Northern Shan States.

By J. Coggin Brown, M.Sc., F.G.S.

(Plate IX.)

It has been shown in a previous paper that bamboo Jew's harps attain a wide range as a common form of musical instru-

ment among certain tribes of Eastern Asia.1

In the eastern parts of the Indian Empire the Lakher, Chin, Naga, Mikir, Garo, Kachin, Assamese and Lisu tribes are known to be acquainted with their manufacture and use, but. I have been unable to find any reference to their occurrence in the Palaung country, or amongst the Tai peoples in general, though an extensive literature has already grown up devoted especially to those branches of the great Tai family usually

grouped together as the Shans of Upper Burma.2

It may be mentioned here that the Palaungs belong to the Mon Hkmer family of Indo-China, which also contains the head-hunting Was of the country east of the Salween, and the K'amus who, with allied races, stretch down into Cambodia. It is probable that tribes of this family were the first Mongolian race to inhabit Indo-China, and the Palaungs left behind in the general southerly movement of the family have preserved from the remote past many of their national customs, their language, and their characteristic female dress; and, in spite of the later influx of Tai and Tibeto-Burman races are ruled today in Tawnpeng (the smallest of the Northern Shan States of Upper Burma) by their own chief.8

Palaungs are also found scattered over the hilly districts of the Northern Shan States of Hsipaw, North and South Hsenwi, and in Mongmit, a Shan State which is administered as a sub-division of the Ruby Mines District. There are other

8 Tawnpeng (Burmese "Taung-baing)" has an area of about 800 square miles grouped roughly around Namhsan, the capital of the State.

^{1 &}quot;Report on a Collection of Musical Instruments from the Siamese Malay States and Perak," by Henry Balfour, M.A., F.Z.S. "Fasciculi Malayenses." Anthropology, Part II (a), pp. 6-7.

2 "The Jew's Harp in Assam," by A. Willifer Young. Journal Asiatic Soc. Bengal, vol. iv, No. 4, pp. 233-237. "A Lisu Jew's Harp from Yunnan," by J Coggin Brown. Journal Asiatic Soc. Bengal, vol., vi, No. II, pp. 589-592.

This town lies approximately in lat. 23°, long. 97° 10′.

The term 'Palaung' is of Burmese origin. The people call themselves "Ta-ang" or "Ra-ang" and "Ru-mai."

They are known to the Shans as 'Koon loi' or hill men (Shan "Koon man, "loi' = hill), whilst the Yunnanese Chinese refer to them as "Ponglore" which have substituted the Burmese name. long," which may only be a corruption of the Burmese name.

isolated villages both in this and the Bhamo districts, whilst they extend as far south as Kengtung in the Southern Shan States. Eastwards they are met with in the Chinese Shan States, but never at any great distance from the frontier.1

During recent journeys in the Northern Shan States 1 have obtained various specimens of the typical forms of Jew's harps used by both Shans and Palaungs. Whilst the two types are almost identical, differing rather in size and workmanship than in design, they at the same time exhibit certain peculiarities of construction which do not appear to have been noticed before, and I, therefore, propose to record a description of them here.

Fashioned from a piece of hard fibrous bamboo, the Shan Jew's harp in my possession is 15.7 cms. long and is made up of the following sections :-

> (a) The end solid piece 6 cms. long which is rounded for facility in holding.

> (b) The chamber carrying in vibrating tongue 2.8 cms. long.

> (c) The part containing the movable central piece which is in continuation with the vibrating tongue and which is 5.4 cms. long. This part is cut away for 4 cms. in order that a maximum amount of flexibility may be imparted to the central piece.

> (d) The solid part which connects the vibrating tongue with the spur and which is 5 cms. long.

(e) The projecting spur itself 1 cm. long, round off to join (d), and cut away to a thickness of 1 mm. at the other end. By means of this spur the vibrations are set up.

The width of the instrument is 8 mm. and its thickness 1-5 mm. On the outer side, two movable bamboo strips (f), each 3.2 cms. long and .3 cms. in width with a thickness of less than 1 mm., are introduced into slits prepared for the purpose. These thin pieces of bamboo are movable, and extend from beyond the edge of the vibrating tongue to where it thickens to become the central piece. The chamber in which the tongue moves can be opened or closed by moving them in or out, by means of which a variation in tone can be produced at will. The projecting piece and central movable bar are usually loaded with wax for the same purpose. A reference to

¹ For a fuller account of the Palaungs see the following papers:—
 "A Note on the Palaungs of Hsipaw and Tawnpeng," by C. C.
Lowis, I.C.S., Ethnographical Survey of India, Burma, No. I, 1906.
 "Some Customs of the Tawnpeng Palaungs," by J. Coggin Brown,
 "Proceedings, University of Durham Philosophical Society, vol. iv, Pt. I,

pp. 1-8.

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the annexed drawing will show the relationship of these various

parts and illustrate this explanation.

The Palaung Jew's harp is constructed on identical lines so that a further description is unnecessary. In most of the specimens I have seen, it is of somewhat rougher construction and slightly longer and wider, but it always bears the two movable bamboo strips, which distinguish these specimens from all other forms.

The Shan and Palaung instruments are of finer workmanship than those which have been described from Assam and certain other hill tracts of Burma, but they do not approach the Lisu harp in delicacy of construction. There is a remarkable similiarity between them and the forms obtained in the Siamese Malay States by Dr. Annandale, suggesting the idea that the Malays may have obtained the model, and learned the use of the instrument from their Siamese Shan neighbours, for its use appears to be universal among the Tais.

This similarity of design and construction also goes far to prove that the bamboo Jew's harp is not regarded as a toy, but as a musical instrument with its own recognized place in the

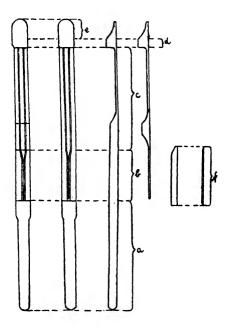
orchestra of those tribes who use it.

It is played by both men and women, and is often made to break the monotony of a long walk, especially after night-fall, being played singly or with other instruments such as the flute. It also serves the Shan youth when serenading. I have noticed that the Burmese proper are entirely unacquainted with the bamboo harp except in areas where they adjoin hill

tracts inhabited by wilder tribes.

The accompanying plate (Plate IX) illustrates Lisus playing their Jew's harp and flute, and was taken in Panghsa-pyé, Tawngpeng State, Northern Shan States, Burma. Five years ago I visited Panghsa-pyé, which was then inhabited by Palaungs. Dr. and Mrs. Schermann of Munich, to whose kindness I am indebted for the photograph, and who lately passed through the place, inform me that the Palaungs left the village and settled elsewhere as soon as Lisu influence became dominant, and that the village is now entirely in the hands of the latter tribe.

A Shan Tew's Harp.



40. Notes on the Ethnography of the Bashahr State, Simla Hills, Punjab.

By Pandit Tîka Râm Joshi, some time Private Secretary to the Râjâ of Bashahr; edited by H. A. Rose, C.S., Punjab.

The object of these notes is to reproduce the substance of some notes in the ethnography and folklore of the Bashahr State, received from Singhi and Devi Laru, two employés of that State. These notes are embodied in Part I. Part II deals with the Kanâwar valley, a dependency of Bashahr and which is divided into Upper and Lower Kanâwar. Upper Kanâwar included the pargana of Shuwa and that part of the Inner Tukpâ pargana which lies on the left or south bank of the Sutlej; while Lower Kanâwar includes parganas Alhârabîs, Rajgaon, part of the Inner Tukpâ pargana, and part of Pandarahîs pargana. Outer Tukpâ pargana lies in the Bâspâ valley of Kanâwar, but strictly speaking it forms no part of Upper or Lower Kanâwar. Bhâla pargana lies in the Thang valley towards (s)Piti. The notes in Kanâwar are by Paṇḍit Tîka Râm Joshi, the author of the Kanâwari Grammar and Dictonary.

H. A. Rose.

Birth.—During pregnancy the kuldeotá is worshipped, if necessary, and between the seventh and eighth months the Ashtam Râhu is also worshipped, but these observances are confined to the twice-born castes and to the better class of the Khash Kanets. Brahmans predict the child's sex by counting a handful of almonds, odd numbers indicating a boy, even a girl. The birth of a girl passes unnoticed, but that of a boy is the occasion for festivities and almsgiving. As a rule the midwife is a woman of low caste, but sometimes Karân women are so employed. During the last five months of pregnancy the midwife massages the woman at the end of each month to keep the foetus in position.

The gontrâlâ is observed by Bráhmans, Râjputs and Vaisyas after 11, 13 and 15 days respectively. Some of the Khash also observe it. On the expiry of this period the family is deemed clean again, and other families of the tribe can eat with them. The mother is also purified after the gontrâlâ. The impurity only lasts three days among the menial tribes.

The ceremony of feeding the child for the first time is called

¹ Simply by making gifts to priests and other Bráhmans.

lugra, and is observed at an auspicious moment, with worship

of Ganpatî and the nine planets, and various festivities.

The child is named at the annodak, and as usual given two This is done when it is five or six months old as a rule. Nâtwa is observed among the three higher castes, and since recent times by some of the Khash.

Women whose children die prematurely have recourse to various charms, but the favourite remedy is the worship of the Ashtam Râhu, especially in cases of ashtamrâh 2 or falling sick-

ness, to which children are liable.

The first tonsure (locally called kanbâl) 8 is done at the kuldeotâ's temple alone. It is observed by the twice-born castes on a day fixed by a purchit or pudhá: other castes with the deotâ's permission.

Marriage,—Ritual marriage is confined to the ruling family and to some Darbârîs, Bráhmans and Bâniâs of Râmpur town. Amongst them a betrothal once made is irrevocable. except on account of leprosy, constant ill-health or apostasy on the bridegroom's part, or in the event of his committing a crime.

As soon as the date of the wedding is fixed the preparations

for it are begun on an auspicious day.

The commencement of the wedding is called the sarbarambh.

A kangná is tied round the bridegroom's wrist, and after that he must not go outside the house. Ganpatî is then worshipped, and batná is rubbed on the bodies of both bride and

bridegroom for three to five days, according to the family.

Worship of the Kuljá, i.e., the boy's family god, is then performed. When the marriage party sets out, the bridegroom is garlanded, but those of his family who are under the influence of gharastak (Sanskrit grihastak, "family") must not see the garland or it will bring them bad luck. The cost of the garland as well as the expenses of the graha shanti 6 are borne by the bridegroom's maternal uncle.

After the departure of the wedding party the women observe

1 At which the child is fed for the first time on grain and water.

Kuladevata and Ganpati are worshipped.

• From Sanskrit earb, all, and drambh, commencement.

⁽From Senskr. anna, grain, and udak, water.)

2 Ashtamrah or asht mrdha, that is, the planet Rahu (the eighth grahs) is at the eighth place from the lagna in which the boy was born, bring sickness to him; and to avert this Rahu must be worshipped. Since the eighth place from the janma lagna (birth lagna) is that of Death, there is danger of sickness if it is occupied by Råhu, Shani and Mangal (grahai).

8 Kanbal from Sanskrit karnavedha, meaning boring of ears, is the ceremony in which the ears are pierced for the insertion of earrings. The

⁵ i.e., a shehrá is rlaced on the bridgroom's head. Children by a former wife are forbidden to see their father put on the shehrá on the occasion of his second marriage; throughout the Hills, children by a former wife are not allowed to see their father in the guise of a bridegroom. 6 Graha shants or worship of the nine planets.

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the parohâ or parowân, but this is not known in the villages. This custom, general throughout the Hills, is confined to the women because all the men have gone on the wedding procession. The women perform the wedding rites at the bridegroom's house, one representing the priest, others the bride and bridegroom, and so on, with songs and dances.

When the bridegroom reaches the bride's house the parents meet first—an observance called milnî—and the bridegroom must not see his parents or sister-in-law until the lagan pherá rite has been solemnised. At this rite he recites chhands.2 After it

come the sir-gondî, menhdî and oiling of the bride.

After worshipping Ambiká and performing jaljátrá 8 the bridegroom's sihrá is untied by his best man, who must be a relative.

The wedding concludes with the untying of the bride's kangná by a man who is regarded as a great friend of the bridegroom.

The bride returns to her father's house three weeks or a

l Paroha or parowan appears to be derived from paurana, to send to

2 Some of the chhands recited by the bridegroom are given below:—

- Chhand pakáúň chhand pakáúň, chhand pakaigá bírá, Barát ái chándní Jamái. áyá lárá hírá.
- Chhand pakáúň chhand pakáúň, chhand pakaigá khurmá Tumhári betí ko aisá rakhúň, Jaisá ánkhon men surmá.
- 3. Chhand pakáúň chhand pakáúň, chhand pakaigá rorá, Dúsrá chhand tab kahúň, Jo saurá dewe ghorá.
- 4. Chhand payágá chhand payágá, chhand payágá thálí, Dúsrá chhand tab kahúngá Jab saurá degá sálí.

I recite a metre like the betel leaf, The wedding procession has arrived, the canopy is pitched, The bridegroom is like a diamond.

I recite a metre sweet like a sweet, I will keep your girl as well

As (women keep) lamp-black in the eyes.

I recite a metre as hard as a stone,

The next metre will recite

When the father-in-law gives me a horse.

I recite a metre as fine as a metal dish.

The next metre will recite

When the father-in-law gives me my wife's sister also.

Chhand means prosedy; but they recite some poetry or doha. 8 This "pilgrimage to a spring" is made on the fourth day after the wedding. 45.

month after the wedding. This is called the dwirágaman, and sometimes costs one-fourth of the amount spent on the actual

wedding.

Only among the twice-born castes does a bride receive dower, stri-dhan. This includes the presents made to her by her father and husband, and the gifts made to her by her mother-in-law

and others at the end of the wedding ceremony.

Dower.—The Basháhr State has recently bestowed two villages on the two Deís of Basháhr who were married to H. H. the Rájá of Káshípúr. The income of these two villages will go to the two Deís at Káshípúr, and to their offspring after their death. Occasionally the chief or a rânî gives dower to a Bráhman girl. She is then called a kankorî, and is regarded as the donor's own daughter. Even poor men give a daughter some dower according to their means. Locally this is called sambhâl, a term which includes any present made to a married daughter on certain occasions.

Formal marriage is not, however, universally observed even by Bráhmans or Râjputs, on the one hand: while on the other even Bâniâs in townships observe the rites in vogue among Bráhmans of the higher classes. Bráhmans in the villages only observe the lagan phera. Among the Râjputs the Thâkurs who live in villages and marry in their own class omit the lagan phera, as do the agricultural Khash, but Thâkurs who aspire to Mîâri status, and the upper classes among the Khash, do observe it. In brief, formal marriage is confined to families resident in a bâzâr or township or connected with the State darbâr.

Customary marriage.—Customary marriage is usually observed by the Thâkurs and Khash, who perform no lagan vedî rites, but simply worship the dwâr-matrî, hearth, and the nine planets. Collectively these observances are called sank-bhari. These are the binding ingredients in the rite, although if a girl is being married to several husbands, the attendance of one

only is indispensable.

Another form of customary marriage with a maid, who is wooed and won from a fair or a place of pilgrimage, is prevalent among the Khash and Karân. It is solemnised by worship of the door and hearth, and by the andarera or andrela, and the pair are regarded as bride and bridegroom.

8 Said to be the Sanskr. vadha-pravesh, the observance by which a

¹ The dwar-matrî are seven Nymphs, who reside in the doors; their names are as follows: Kalyânî, Dhanadâ, Nandâ, Punnyâ, Punyamukhî, Jayâ or Vijayâ. The whole group is called Dwar-mâtrî.

² From Sanskrit shakhochchara, the recitation of the bride's and bridegroom's got, shakha (whence the name), and parvara. Hence this rite corresponds to the gotrachar of the plains. Bráhmans are paid for this recitation. Twice-born castes observe the Shakhochchar, while the fourth class, that is Kanets, call the wedding ceremony by the name of Shankh-bhari.

If the girl's parents have a husband in view, but she is forcibly carried off from a fair, etc., by another man, they will nevertheless go to her wedding and give her a dower in money, clothes, etc., while the bridegroom gives his mother-in-law, father, or brother-in-law a present of cash.

The consideration paid by the bridegroom to the bride's guardians is called *dherî*, and if from any cause the marriage is dissolved this sum must be refunded to the bridegroom. The man who abducts or seduces a married woman is liable for the payment of the *dherî* to her first husband. Moreover, if she has a child by her first husband and takes it with her, the second husband becomes liable for this child's maintenance; but it does not inherit its step-father's property.

An unmarried woman who gives birth to a child is called $bahb\hat{i}$ or $bahr\hat{i}$, and the child, who is called $j\hat{a}t\hat{u}$ or $jh\hat{a}t\hat{u}$, has no rights whatever, if she marry, in her husband's property.

Death.—The alms given at death are called khat-ras, deva dân, gau dân, baitarnî dân, and panch ratn, and are offered by all castes.

A $m\hat{a}l\hat{i}$ or $nachhatr\hat{i}$, called the $ash\hat{a}nt\hat{i}$, can predict the fates of those who accompany the bier. The $m\hat{a}l\hat{i}$ is a worshipper of ghosts $(mash\hat{a}n$ and $bh\hat{u}t)$. He is not a Bráhman, but a Kanet, or even a man of low caste; and he predicts after consulting his book of divination $(ginne \ k\hat{i} \ kit\hat{a}b)$.

In the villages of Basháhr are men who can foretell deaths. Such a man is called a *māshanî*. They differ from the *mālî*.

Chelás (lit. disciples) in Basháhr are called málîs of the deotá; and in order to ascertain if a man, woman or child is under a demon's influence, the demon's mâlî is called in. Taking some rapeseed in his hand he predicts the period within which the patient will recover. If the latter does regain his health, a bali is offered to the demon.

Bakrâ sundhá is performed after 13 days among Bráhmans.

lawfully married wife enters her husband's house at an auspicious time, with music and singing.

¹ Customary marriage is not permissible among the twice-born castes, and if such a marriage occur, the issue are only entitled to maintenance, or to a field or shop (for maintenance) without power of alienation: but such issue may succeed in default of fully legitimate issue

² Khatras dan, generally called dashadan, the gift of ten things, viz., (1) a cow, (2) land, (3) sesamum, (4) gold, (5) clarified butter (ght), (6) a cloth, (7) unpounded rice, (8) sugar, (9) silver, (10) salt. Ant dan is a gift made, given by the son on his father's breathing his last. Dev-dan is to offersome gift to the deities. Those who receive the death-bed gifts from Bráhmans and Rájputs are called Achâraj or Mahâ-Bráhmans, and those who receive the death-bed gifts from other castes are termed Krishan Bráhmans.

⁸ The malis are exorcists as well, and also give oracles.

⁴ Bakrd means a goat, which is sacrificed after 15 days of one's death.

15 among Râjputs, while Kanets perform it after 15 days or even after ten days. If the proper day chances to be inauspicious the observance is held a day earlier or later. The Brahman bhojan. or feast given to Brahmans, is called dharmshanti, and after it the twice-born castes are considered purified.

The mâski is a shrâdh held one lunar month after the death.

The chhe-mâski is held six months after it.

The barashwâ is held on the first anniversary, and on it alms, including a shayyâ, la palanquin, horse, etc., are given to the family Achâraj or, in villages, to the Krishna Bráhmans. A similar shradh is held on the second and third anniversaries. On the fourth is held the chau-barkhî. The soul goes through three phases, prânî, pret, and rishet,2 and on the completion of the fourth year it is purified and becomes a pitar deotâ. In addition the pârbanâ and kâniágat shrâdhs are observed for four or five generations.

The deceased is also worshipped among the twice-born castes as a godling satî, pâp or newá; and among others an image is made of stone or of silver, for which some grain is set apart at each harvest, and sometimes a he-goat is sacrificed and liquor drank, the belief being that omission to keep up the worship of

the dead will end in disaster.

Bráhmans and Râjputs observe the sapin-dana, sapindi shrâdh and karchhû. In the latter rite khir (rice, milk and sugar) is prepared, and a Mahá Bráhman fed with it. Then the corpse is put in a shroud and carried out to the burning ground. On the road pinds are given to ensure immunity to the deceased, and an earthen vessel is also broken. A lamp is kept burning till the kiriá, to light the soul in its dark road, and the dharm-ghaia to quench its thirst.4

The temples in Bashahr are of undoubted antiquity, and those of Nirt, Nagar and the Four Therîs are said to date back to the Tretá-vug; Kharáhan, Sûngrá in Bhâba parganá and Chügâon in Kanâwar to the Dwâpar-yug; and most of them were

constructed in those periods.

And sundhá means assafætida, which is never eaten until the ceremony called bakrd (and) sundhd has been performed.

² For one year after death one is called *pret*, and from the second year to the fourth one is called *rishet*, from rishi, a sage.

4 A person of the same name and rdehi as the deceased must not accompany the bier, and should perform a graha-dan for his own protec-

tion.

¹ Shayyd means bedding. In the shayyd-ddn the following articles are given; a cot, bedding, quilt, bed-sheet, cooking vessels, dish, male and female attire, and ornaments, -all according to one's means.

⁸ The parvan shradh is that which is performed on a parbi, such as an eclipse. The 8th and 14th of the dark half of a month, an andwas and a paranmast. And the kshayah or ekodist shradh is that which is observed annually on the date of the death.

The temple servants are the kârdâr or manager, pujârî,

bhandarî, tokrû, mâth, kâyath, mâlî 1 and bajantrî.

In the villages the term pujari or deotû 2 is applied to those who carry the deotâ's car or rath, as well as to those who accompany the deotâ to their villages.

At Shungra, Chügaon and Gramang in Kanawar are the temples of the three Maheshras. Gramang is a village in Bhaba

pargana, also called Kath-gâoň.

The bajantri are drummers or musicians and get grain, a he-goat (and sometimes a shroud at a death) for their services. Others offer a cloth, called sharî, s to the temple for the decoration of the god's rath.

The pujaris ordinarily belong to the first class of Kanets. The bhandari is the store-keeper. The tokrû's duty is to weigh, and the function of the math or mathas is to ask oracles of the

deity on behalf of the people.

The gods of the village-temples are subordinate to the god of a Deo mandir or "great temple," and they perform certain services for him, e.g., at a yâg and at fairs, in return for the fiefs (jâgîrs) granted them by him.

Similarly the temples at Sûngrá 5 and Kharáhan contain subordinate deotás, and a Deo mandir usually possesses one or more birs 6 to whom food and sacrifice are offered, and who are

worshipped.

Further, in the temple of a village-god will generally be found two cars, one for the presiding god, the other for his subordinate, or kotwâl.

The Kâlî pijans are called kheriá-kârî in Basháhr, and include the Pret Pûjâ, Tekar, and Sarvamandal pújan. They are observed in Sâwan or Phâgan, and the yâg or observance is paid for from the jâgîr of the deity or from funds supplied by his deotûs 8 (devotees), who also give grain, $gh\hat{i}$, oil and he-goats. On an auspicious day chosen by a Bráhman as many as 50 he-goats are sacrificed, and the people of the neighbourhood are

3 Shari a dhoù-cloth or piece of cloth attached in the car of the deity.

4 Sanskrit yajna, a sacrifice.

⁶ Bîr is par excellence the deity Mahâbîr, that is Hanûmân; Bhairab is also termed a Bîr. Lânkurâbîr too is a Bhairab deity.

Bestus here are the persons to whom the Deota belongs, not the phidris.

¹ Here mali means the man called dinudn in these hills, grokeh in

² Deotas are those who worship the deity; they are also called *pujarts*. Deotas are especially those who carry the rath of the deity, and cause him to dance.

⁵ In turn Maheshwar of Sûngra is subordinate to Bhimâ Kâlî at Sarâhan.

⁷ So called because some khir (rice boiled in milk) is offered to the deity Kali. Pret-pûjan is the worship of ghosts, Teâkar and Sarbamandal-pûjan is the worship of all the deities at one place.

feasted, the priests and deotûs receiving the goats' heads and fee.

with some grain and $gh\hat{\imath}$.

The Shand 1 yag.—In Bashahr the Shand yag is celebrated where there has been a good crop or an epidemic is raging. Sometimes 108 balis, sometimes less, are offered, and sacrifices are also made to the ten dishas or quarters. The gods of the four theris and the five sthans 2 (temples) also assemble at it and other gods from the country round attend the yag. The expense incurred is considerable. In Bashahr the people also perform the shand for their own villages.

A minor yâg, called Shândtu or Bhâtpur,8 is also observed every third year, but not universally. Bráhmans perform

worship and are feasted.

Less important yâgs are the jâgrâs and jatâgrâs 4 which are observed annually or every third or fourth year. The biggest, that of Maheshwar of Sûngrá, is held every third year at Nachâr temple, with the following rites:—

Balis (sacrifices) of he-goats are offered on all four sides, and at night a combat takes place between the villagers and the gawâls, b who are armed with large wooden clubs baving fire burning at the ends." The combat lasts all night. The women sing, dance and make merry, and are feasted in return.

In Basháhr the Diâoli is observed in Maghar. It is the special festival of the peasantry, and held only in the village temples. Women observe it by visiting their parents' homes

and there eating cold viands.

The Khâppâ, held on the 15th of Poh in Basháhr, resembles the Diâoli in that State. It is probably the festival called Khwâkchâ in Kanâwar.

The Jal Jâtrâ held in Jeth in Bashahr is the occasion on which the thâkurs are bathed in the rivers with songs and music,

for which the performers are rewarded.

In Bashahr at the Jal or Ban Bihar the thakurs' chariots are carried out into the gardens, and alms given to Bráhmans, musicians, etc.

From shantî, peace.

² These are enumerated in the couplet: Landsa, Dandsa, Singar, Saner, Nirt, Nagar, Nirmand, Kao Mamel. 'The villages of Landsa, Dandsa, Singra and Saneri are the four *Theris*; and Nirt, Nagar, Nirmand, Kao and Mamel are the five Sthâns.' Kao and Mamel are both in Suket, Nirmand in Kullû, and all the rest are in Basháhr. Kão has a temple of Devi, Mamel one to Mahadev. Nirma d has two temples, one of the goddess Nrimunda, and the other of Parasram. In Nirt is a temple to Sûraj (the sun).

⁸ So called because boiled rice (bhat) is offered to the deity.

Jatágrá, a small jágrá.

⁶ Cattle-grazers. 6 Jal Jatra, a visit to a spring. Here thakur means "deity" or " deota."

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The Râm-naumi is called Dharm-kothî ¹ in Basháhr, and is the occasion for general rejoicings, the *thâkurs*' thrones being decorated with heaps of flowers, and many thousands of rupees spent.

In Bashahr the Baisakhî is called Lahôl, and the girls who marry their dolls in Pârbatî's name are given money by the

State or from the bazar.

Caste.—The Bráhmans of Basháhr are divided into three grades:—

(i) Uttam, who do not plough.

(ii) Achâraj, who receive the ashubh dân or impure alms of the other Brahmans and Râjputs. They take daughters in marriage from

(iii) Krishana, who plough.

Like the other two twice-born castes most of the Bráhmans in Basháhr are *sirtorás* and not of pure descent. Those that are of pure blood may be divided into two grades:—

- (a) The State purchits, who intermarry, and eat kachhî with the Râhwî purchits and Brahmans as well as with those of Dwarch and Singra.
- (b) Bázár purohits.

All the twice-born castes will eat pakkí with one another, and even from the Khash and Karân Kanets; but they never do so with the Krishna group.

The Kanets appear to be divided into two hypergamous sub-

castes (groups) :---

(i) The Khash.

(ii) The Karán, or Ráhu, from whom the Khash take daughters but do not give them brides in return, and

(iii) The Ganeshas, so called because they adore the deity Ganesh. The Kanets were originally Thâkurs, but lost status by adopting widow re-marriage.

If a part of a field is left while being sown, worship is made on the spot and a he-goat sacrificed because it is unlucky to leave

a bit bejindir (banjar, uncultivated).

As in the Simla Hills, generally, the abandonment of land is called sog or mandokri. When a house or field is believed to be occupied by a demon it is regained by sacrificing a he-goat in the name of his mane. But even then a cultivated field so regained cannot be ploughed, and must only be used for pasture.

An oath in Bashahr is termed dib.8 It is administered when

¹ It is so called because on this occasion the *Dharm-kotht* or 'store-house of charity' remains open to all, and everyone is given food from it for a week or so.

² Ranwî is the name of a village of Brahmans who are priest to the Raia.

⁸ Sanskrit divya, divine pronouncement.

it is impossible to find out the truth of a case, and there is no reliable evidence. One party agrees to take the oath. First he has a cold bath. Then he goes to the temple and says that if he is in the right he ought to be successful, but if unsuccessful, in the wrong. Two balls of kneaded flour, one containing a silver coin, and the other a gold piece, are put in a narrow vessel full of water, and the man is bidden to take one ball out. It is then broken, and if it contains the silver, he is supposed to be successful, and if the gold, he is deemed to have failed.

A man can be released from an oath by the thâl darchi, which consists in making a present to the Râjâ and also performing a yaq, i.e., sacrificing a he-goat in honour of the god.

The 14th of the dark half of Bhâdo is termed Krishan chaudas or Dagyâlî-chaudas (from Dag-wâlî-chaudas); and on that day the worship of Kâlî is observed. It is a general belief in the Punjab hills that some women are Dâgs or Dâins, that is to say, that a sight of them is not lucky, or in other words they know some incantations by which they can assume the form of a tiger or vulture, and that any beautiful thing which comes into their sight is destroyed. The 14th of the dark half of Bhâdo is their feast day, and they then assemble in the Biâs Kund in Kullu, or at some other place, such as the Karol hill, which lies between Solan and Kândâghât. Some mustard-seed is thrown on to the fields so that the Dâg may not destroy the crops. On that day no man goes out from fear of the Dâg, and on each house door some thorns are stuck with cow-dung, so that the Dâg may not enter.

CUSTOMS IN KANÂWAR.

In the Kanâwar valley Buddhism is the dominant faith, but the social customs of the people generally resemble those of the Hindus, though the observances bear Tibetan names, and the ritual, etc., is conducted in that language.

Birth customs.—During pregnancy the following chant

is sung :---

Om táre tutáre Táre sváhá
Om patá láge náchungná támí
hadki dová dol dolmá kharché
sheksú ládang lání chat paňgí
shyábgí pádmo ládukté fángmo
kulná dobzadmá dolmá yumlá
chhák-chālo.

Translation.

"O goddess Târâ, I bow down to thee, be pleased to bestow on this woman thy choicest blessings." And a charm written on a bit of paper or birch-tree bark is tied round the woman's neck.

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[N.S.]

On the birth of a son the goddess Dolmâ is adored, and the chant called Bhum chung, which runs: Om tâyathâ gâte gâte pârâ gâte swâhâs ('may God bless the child') is sung. The old women of the family perform the midwife's functions; and for a fortnight the mother lives apart, being debarred from touching anything. At the end of that period she and all she possesses are sprinkled with cow's urine mixed with Ganges water, as among Hindus. The child's horoscope is cast by a lâma, who also names the child when it is 15 days old, or on any other auspicious day. It is generally brought out of the house for the first time at the full moon and, if possible, at an auspicious moment, when one or two months old. Charms for its long life are also made by the lâmâs.

A boy's head is shaved when one year old, the *lâmás* performing a *hom*, *pûja*, or *pâth* sacrifice. As the Kanâwarís only rank as Shúdras they are not entitled to wear the sacred thread, so they wear instead a *kaňthî* or ² necklace from the age of 8.

Marriage customs resemble those of the Tibetans. Brothers marry a joint wife, the *lâmás* solemnizing the wedding by chanting certain hymns and worshipping the gods or goddesses,

goats also being sacrificed.

The nuptial rites in Kanâwar are peculiar. In the first place the amount of the *dherî* is unusually high, varying from Rs. 100 to Rs. 1,000.8 The custom as to dower is also different. Many people give the bride as many pewter vessels as there are in the bridegroom's family, but ornaments, he-goats, cows etc., are also given. The wedding is thus solemnized:—

One of the brothers, most usually the one who is the bride's equal in age, goes with some of his relatives to her father's house on the day fixed by the *lâma* (priest). There the party are well entertained, and the *lâma* solemnizes the wedding by reciting some chants in Tibetan after the Tibetan manner. Next day they return to their own house with the bride richly dressed and adorned. On reaching home the bride is made welcome, especially by her mother-in-law. After a religious ceremony, the bride's right hand is held by all the bridegroom's brothers,

² The Kanth is an ordinary necklace made of tules, the holy basin (Ocymum sacrum). These kanths are generally made in Hardwar, Brinds-

ban, Ajudhya, and Benares.

¹ Hôm is a rite in which flames are fed with clarified butter mixed with barley and sesamum seed; if possible almonds and dried grapes are also mixed in it. Pûjû is an offering to the deity of a lamp fed with butter, water, flowers, sweetmeats, fruit, etc., while Pûth consists in reading or reciting the Tibetan scripture called Chhas or Chhoss.

⁸ The *dhert* prevents a woman's going to another man, as only he who takes on himself the responsibility for it is entitled to keep the woman. It is a sum paid to the bride's guardian by those of the bridegroom, and must be refunded to the latter if the marriage turns out badly, ^{e.g.}, if the wife leave her husband and go off with another man, he has to refund the amount to them.

and then all of them are deemed to have married her. A feast is then given to all who are present, and the *lâmas* and musicians are fed. This marriage is a valid one. The child of an unmarried girl is called *puglang* (bastard), and has no right to anything by way of inheritance. Such children live by service and marry with some one of their own class, *i.e.*, with a *puglang* or *puglakch*.

The right of inheritance.—In case all the brothers have only one joint-wife, there can be no question as to the right of inheritance. However, just as the bride's mother-in-law is mistress of the family, so on her death the wife succeeds as its mistress. Thus the movable and immovable property of a family remains in the house and is never divided. But the custom of polyandry

is nowadays declining by degrees.

As the trade and wealth of Kanâwar increase and its people come more in contact with India, they are rapidly abandoning the old customs, such as dûbant (plunging), phukant (burning), bhakhant (eating), etc. This method of disposing of a dead body was formerly observed only by the inhabitants of Hângrang ghorî who are called by the Kanâwars Nyâm, and by the Kochî or Pahârî people, Zâr or Jâr, Zâd, or Jâd.

The lâmas used to consult their scriptures and advise as to the disposal of the dead according to the time, etc., of the death, but now the Hindu shrâdhs and so on are observed. The only old custom which survives is the annual shrâdh called phulaich in which a he-goat, reared in the dead man's name, is dressed in his clothes, sacrificed and eaten by the members of his kindred.

At a death-bed, grain is distributed among all those present, and the lâmas read from Buddhist writings. The body is burnt on the same day, or at latest in the next. Drums, sanâis, karnâls² and conches are played when the corpse is carried to the burning-ground. Some of the bones are picked up, and sent either to Mânasarowar in Tibet, to Rawâlsar in Mandi State, or to the Ganges.³ In the deceased's room a lamp is kept burning for seven days from the death, and incense is also burnt in it. The chholpa (Hind. kiria karm) is performed from the eighth to the tenth day; all the deceased's clothes are given to the lâmás, with other gifts. The panchaka or group of five constellations is

8 Taking the bones to the Ganges is said to be quite a recent innovation

-only dating back two or three years.

¹ Fulsich or Phulaich, from Hindi phûl, flower, is so called because Kanāwaris do not wear new clothes till one year after a death in the family, but after performing the dújang they may wear flowers and new clothes.

² The sandi and karnal are both musical instruments used in the hills. The former is made of wood and is about a foot long, with seven holes on which the fingers are placed while playing, and its sound is like that of an Algoja; the latter is made of brass and is like a long horn with a round broad mouth; in sound it resembles the conch.

The five nakshatras are Dhanisthå, Shat bhishå, Purvåbhådrapadå, Uttårabhådrapadå, and Rewati.

inauspicious for the family of one who dies under it, and to avert the evil, images of roasted flour are made and burnt with the

corpse, to the accompaniment of Tibetan chants.

After 15 days the lâma does hom, pûjâ, and pâth, reciting Tibetan chants of purification. This ends the period of mourning. After a year the phulaich is observed, by giving food and clothes to a lâmá in the deceased's name; and until this is observed the family must not wear any new clothes, etc. The shrâdh, called dújang in Kanâwari, is also solemnized by the lâmá. The burning grounds are haunted by Mashân, Râkshas, Shyûná, and Khar-shyûná, of whom the first two are conceived of as evil spirits or demons, and the two latter as Jack-o'-lanterns or ghosts.

The following chant is repeated by the lâmâ more than a thousand times to exorcise an evil spirit from a man or woman: Om bâjrâ kilâ kilâyâ dîmo shakchâ uchâ thayâlâ fat. Any one bitten by a mad dog is healed by repeating the following chant more than a thousand times: Om khu-khu râchâ khâ-thâm dewâ

châng-ghî dwîshok.

MONASTICISM.

Kanet girls, who do not marry, but devote their time to the study of the Tibetan scriptures, are called zomos or jamos. They live in nunneries. The two principal nunneries are at Kánam and Sunnam, and in these a great number of zomos live. Besides this, every village has a few zomos.

Kanet boys, who learn the Tibetan scriptures, and are well versed in the Buddhist doctrines, are called *lâmás*. They live in monasteries and are looked upon as very holy. In fact they are the priests of all of the Kanets. There are several monasteries of these *lâmas* in Kánam, Sunnam, and other villages.

Lâmás are either Gyôlang or celibate, like the Brahmachârî

or Dugpû, who marry but never shave the head.

8 From Sanskr. shanti, peace.

The lâmá is consulted regarding every important undertaking. Thus he is asked to name an auspicious day for beginning to plough or sow, and at the time ascertained he recites chants like the one beginning: Om akânî nikânî ambitâ mandâtê mantâlê swâhâ, 'May the gods bestow on us abundance of grain.'

When a new roof is put on a temple, which is called *shânt*,⁸ the lâmas perform a ceremony, reciting charms and performing

Phulàich is also the name of a fair held in October every year at Brâling, near Ropâ. See Ukhyâng fair in the list of fairs attached in the footnotes.

² Mashan and Rakshasa are of course Sanskrit terms. The other two are Kanawari, possibly corruptions of Tibetan words. It is worth remarking that Mashan, Shyûna and Rakshas are also septs of Kanets, found in Mellam, Asrang and Rîrang villages respectively.

hom, with the sacrifice of sheep and goats. This is called pares-

tâng (Sanskr. pratisthâ, consecration).

When a new house is ready the lâmá fixes the time auspicious for its occupation, and the owner dressed in new clothes is then taken into it with his wife, who rings a bell. This is called gorâsang.

New grain is first offered to the village-god and may then be

eaten.

An alphabetical list of the deotâs in Kanâwar, together with the name of the village in which each is located.

1. Badrînâth, at Kâmrû or Mone village.

- 2. Bhîmâkâlî, at Kâmrû or Mone village. (Also at Sarâhan.)
- Chhâkoling Dâmbar, at Lâbrang village, in parganâ Shûwâ.
 Chaňdikâ, at Ropâ village, in Shûwâ parganâ, Gaňgyulghorî. Also at Yâwring village, Shûwâ parganâ.

5. Chhwedung, at Chângo village in Shûwâ parganâ.

6. Dablâ, at Kânam, Dâbling, Dubling, Lîo, Spûwâ or Poo, Shyâsho. U.K.

7. Deodum, at Nâko, in Shûwâ parganâ.

8. Gyângmâgyum, at Jângî, in Shûwâ parganâ.

9. Kâsurâjas, at Rîrang or Ribbâ, in Inner Tukpâ parganâ.

10. Khormo, at Pîlo or Spîlo, in Shûwâ parganâ.

11. Kulyô, at Richpâ or Rispâ, Inner Tukpâ parganâ.

12. Mahêshras, at Shungrâ or Grosnam in Thârâbîs parganâ, at Grâmang or Kathgâon in Bhâbâ parganâ, and at Chügâon or Thôlang in Rajagâon parganâ.

13. Markaling, at Khwangi in Shuwa pargana.

14. Mâthî, at Chhitkul in Outer Tukpâ parganâ.

15. Milâkyum, at Âkpâ village in Shûwâ parganâ.

 Nâges, at Bârang, Brûâng, Châsang, Chhotâ Kâmbâ, Kilbâ, Mewar, Mîrû, Sânglâ, Sâpnî or Râpang villages.

17. Nâgin, at Barî village in Thârâbîs parganâ.

18. Narâyan, at Barsering village in Outer Tukpâ parganâ.

19. Narenas, at Asrang, Chînî, Shohâng, Urnî, and Yûlâ villages; and also at Chügâon, Grâmang and Shungrâ, with the three Maheshras.

20. Ormig, at Môrang or Ginam village in Inner Tukpâ parganâ.

21. Pâthoro, at Rârang and Punnam villages, Shûwâ and Rajgâoň parganâs.

22. Rogshû, at Rogî village in Shûwâ parganâ.

- 23. Shankras, at Pwari or Por village in Inner Tukpa pargana.
- 24. Shanshras, at Râkchham village in Outer Tukpâ parganâ.

25. Shêshêring, at Pângî village in Shûwâ pargand.

26. Râpukch, at Thângî village in Inner Tukpâ pargand.

¹ From Sanskr. grihapravtishtha, entering in a house: it is called ghardent in the Simla Hills.

27. Shûwâng Chaňdikâ, at Kostampî or Kothî village in Shûwâ parganâ.

28. Târâsang, at Trândâ village in Thârâbîs parganâ.

29. Têras, at Rûpî village in Pandrâbîs pargand.

30. Tungma Dambar, at Gyabung village in Shûwa pargana. 31. Ukha, at Nachar and Bara Kamba villages, Tharabis and

Pandrabis pargana.

32. Yulshâ, at Sunnam village in Shûwâ parganâ.

Någes deota in Sånglå village is thus addressed by the pujyåres in worship:—

Ja bitinglâ, jaa kharaklâ, jaa pâţulâ, jaa thorûshaa, jaa chhâlimchô, jaa daňkhechô, dâlecha upâbocha, chỉ pâbocha, jaa barja, jaa shing khâmbling, jaa shyâng, brâling, jaa shyâng khâmbling.

Translation.

- O thou, who livest within the wall, be victorious,
- O thou, who livest in the holes, be victorious,
- O thou, who canst go into a vessel, be victorious,
- O thou, who canst swiftly run, be victorious,
- O thou, who livest in the water, be victorious,
- O thou, who livest on the precipice, be victorious,
- O thou, who livest upon the trees, be victorious,
- O thou, who livest in the waste-land, be victorious,
- O thou, who livest among the meadows, be victorious,
- O thou, who hast power like the thunderbolt, be victorious,
- O thou, who livest within the hollow trees, be victorious,
- O thou, who livest among the rocks, be victorious,
- O thou, who livest within the caves, be victorious.

The Rev. R. Schnabel informs me that Poo should be spelt Phu and that it means 'the upper extremity of a winding vale.' As regards Dablâ, the local god of Phu, he adds:—

Unsre Tibeter sagen "Pabla Spun dgu"—Spun = Geschwister, Bruder, Schwester and dgu = 9 (zahl), und tatsächlich verteilt sich diese "Geschwistergottheit" auf 9 Dörfer in Upper Kanawar, nämlich: Phu, Kanam, Dabling, Dabaling, Lid, Shasu, Khab, Namgya und Kang. Ihre 9 Namen sind folgende:—

- 1 Zu Phu Dabla Dromomin (weiblich). ,, Kánam Chagsdrul (mannlich). . . ,, Pallen bzangmo (weiblich). " Dábling . . ** Chōla bzang rigpa (männlich). ,, Dóbaling . . ,, 5 ,, Lid (mir augenblicklich entfallen, kann • • ihn noch mittsilen).
- 6 ,, Shasu .. ,, Lubrngtrashi (männlich).
 7 ,, Khab .. ,, Futidungmo (weiblich).
- 7 , Khab . , Futidungmo (weibiton).
 8 , Namgya . , Serjen chenpa (männlich).
 9 , Kang . , Maggi dponpo (, ,).

Diese, wie sie von den Tibetern bezeichnet wird, indische Gottheit, drang sogar in dem eigentlichen Tibet ein und wird scheints nur in einem Dorfe, Sarkhung, genannt, als, "Dâbla Mag dpon" verehrt. Mit ihrem Erscheinen hörten die Menschenopfer auf, die auch hier in grauer Vorzeit von unsern Tibetern dargebracht wurden. Sie kennen ein Sprüchlein, das lautet:

"dasipor nga rgyagar nas zong tsa na, "glangtrug lo gsum, gispa lo brgyad,"

und hat diesen Sinn:

"Als ich zuerst hierher (ins obere Sutlejtal) kam, da opferte man einen dreijährigen Ochsen sowohl wie einen achtjährigen Knaben. Ganz in der Nähe Phus, auf steilem Bergabhange im Westen, sieht man noch heut die Spur einer ehemalig sehr tiefen Grube, in welcher ein riesiger Skorpion hauste und die Umgegend in Furcht und Schrecken versetzte, wenn man ihm nicht

die oben genannten Opfer alle drei Jahre darbrachte.

Mr. Schnabel has added the Tibetan forms in the above list, and as regards the Khyimpa he observes:—Hier hat ja jedes Haus seinen Namen, wie z.B. in Vhu "Khyimpa" eins der vornehmesten Häuser und zugleich eins der ältesten ist. Die zwei Besitzer (Brüder) genannten Hauses tragen den Titel, "Lempo" oder "blonpo" unter ihren Landsleuten, was "Minister" bedeutet, und wünschen, ja beanspruchen sogar, in den er sten Grad der "Kanets" versetzt zu werden. Wieweit sie dazu berechtigt wären, weiss ich allerdings nicht. Ausser "Lempo" kennen unsre Leute nur noch den Ehrentitel "Zo" Heer, Gebister, adliger Herr Edelmann, der jedoch hier nicht soviel besagt wie beispielsweise in Lahoul, wo sie (die Zos) ein viel grösrere Machtbefugnis haben. Jedenfalls sind diese zwei Titel der "befehlenden Klasse" eigen. So bliebe denn vielleicht noch die Ecklärung des Wortes "Khyimpa" und selbige ist einfach genug

Sa Khyien = Haus, nicht sowohl als Gebäude, sondern als Wohnung, Heimwesen; und Sa Khyimpa = einer, der ein solches hat.

THE KANET SEPTS OF KANAWAR, ACCORDING TO THEIR GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION.

1ST GRADE KANETS.

Rajgáoň parganá.

Name of Sept. (Tibetan form). Village.

Bairyán ... Chugáoň or Thólang.

Skámtas ... Sápní or Rápang.

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Name of Sept.	(Tibetan form	n).	Village.	
Wángmo	• •		Kilbá.	
Thángar	• •		Do.	
Dámes			Urní or Urá.	
Mœlas		• •	Mírú or Mirting.	
Saná	••	• • •	Do.	
Shwal	••	•••	Yúlá.	
Dapráto	•.•	• • •	Mellam or Yáná.	
Bitaryán	• •	• • •	Púnang.	
Sakhán	••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Chugáon or Thólong.	
Rokérú			Do.	
Dérán	• •	• •	Do. Do.	
Dalyán	• •	• •	Do.	
Daiyan	• •	• •	10.	
	Pargan	á Shú	iwá.	
Bóres (s) Pore	s		Jáňgí and Sunnam.	
Ranshyán		• •	Ywaring.	
Dhanshyán			Brelé.	
Farakpá		• • •	Kothí or Kostampí.	
Pálsar	• •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Tailing.	
Aldang, Anglo	lan	••	Lábrang.	
Chhugpó, Chh	ແລະເ	••	Kánam.	
Khádurá	ebo		Rárang.	
Barjí	••	• •	Lippá.	
Shyáltú	• •	• •	Do.	
Tholpá, Tholp	 	• •	Ropá.	
Loktas, Lokta	ia	••		
Pángtú	· · ·	• •	Kánam and Sunnam.	
Shuryán	• •	• •	Pángí.	
	••	• •	Rogi.	
Láspá, Lâspâ Silí	••	• •	Lábrang.	
	• •	• •	Kánam.	
Gyólang	• •	• •	Píló or Spíló.	
Thármí	• •	• •	Tailang.	
Puán, Puāng	• •	• •	Lábrang.	
Makalá Minakalá		• •	Ropá.	
Mispon or Mis			Jáňgí.	
Bist	Parganá Ir	iner i	·	
	• •	• •	Pwari.	
Kállam	• •		Richpá or Rispá.	
Ráthú	• •	• •	Rírang or Ribbá.	
Nyokché	• •		Ţhángi.	
Dhangch	••	• •	Mórang or Ginam.	
The Outer Tukpá parganá.				
Répáltú			Sánglá.	
Chethá	• •	••	Do.	
	••	••		

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Nam	se of Sept.	(Tibetan form	ı).	Village.
	Chángkung	• •	• •	Kámrú or Moné.
	Fanyan	• •	• •	Sánglá.
	Dúdyá n	••	••	Kámrú or Moné.
		Pandarâb	is pa	rganá.
	Yulán	• •		Nátpá.
	Choglá	••	••	Bará Kámbá.
		Ţh áráb í	s par	ganá.
	Tyúras	••		Shungrá or Grosnam.
	Jogtó	••		Pánowí.
	Zinţú	••		Barí.
		2nd Grai	E K.	ANETS.
		Inner Ţuk	pá po	ırganá.
	Brálbang			Rírang or Ribbá.
	Chámápo	••	•	Richpá and Rírang.
	Káthú	• •		Richpá and Rírang. Richpá or Rispá. Rírang and Rispá. Rírang and Rispá. Rírang. Mórang or Ginam.
	Mojrang	••		Rírang and Rispá.
	Páňkar	••		Rírang and Rispá.
	Rákshas			Rirang.
	Shyálí	••		Mórang or Ginam.
	Sothá	••		Day ank.
	Ungyá	••	••	Rírang and Rispá.
		Pargane	í Shú	wá.
	Kharyán	• •	••	Pángí.
	Shyúná	••		Asrang.
	Turkyán			
	Khinpa, Kh	yimpâ	••	Poo or Spoo or Púwé.
		Parganá	Rajg	áoň.
	Anchhán, A	ngchan		Chugáoň or Thólang.
	Mashán	• •		Mellam or Yáná.
	3RD GR	DE KANETS V	VHO '	WORK AS POTTERS.
,		Wângchhân		Mórang, Inner Tukpá par.
1	Wázá	•••	• •	Chugáoň, Rajgáoň par.
1	Méwar	• •	• •	Ropa, Shawa pargana.

TITLES OF OFFICIALS.

 Cháres, the hereditary headman of a village (in each village.)

 Grokch, the hereditary kárdár of the village deity, who speaks on his behalf: found in every village of Kanáwar where there is a deity.

 Máthas, the hereditary kárdár of a deity. His duty is to petition the deity on behalf of the public: found in every village where there is a deity.

 Pujyáres, whose hereditary duty it is to worship the deity: found in every village where there is a deity.

5. Bathungrú, an official like the dafádar of the State.

Caste.—Besides the Kanets and Jâds the only two castes in Kanawar are the Châmang, who make shoes and weave, and

the Domang,2 who are blacksmiths and carpenters.

Water or cooked food which has been touched by the lower castes is not used by Kanets, nor are people of these castes allowed to enter a Kanet's house. If a Kanet eat such food inadvertently he applies to his Râjâ who bids him make expiation (prâyaschitta) and pay some nazrâna or forfeit. This custom is called sajeran or sacheran.

The Hindu salutations are in ordinary use, but when a woman bows down before an elder man saying dhálang, the man replies: Rábarshang rungshi raiň, i.e., may you live for a century.

The grokch of Badrináth at Kámrú thus addresses the

people :-

Satí jugú nyumch Tretá büshid, Tretáú nyumch Dwápar büshis, damyá rágú chú rág shingú chú shing take, damyá árkolang lí nirmání hácho take; hun jú Kalí jugo nirmání lí árkolang hácho dú, tá lí jáp tháp láyátak, thí kashtang háchmá tá wárkyo shothyátak.

Translation.

"After the satya jug came the treta jug, and after the treta jug came the dwapar jug (golden age), at that time a spade was called a spade, at that time the false even became the truth; now in this the kali jug (Iron age), the truth often becomes false, and the false becomes true; however I will do my best to give you every happiness and will remove all your grievances."

The grokch of Shuwang Chandika in Kostampi village thus

addresses the people:—
Thá-rayin, ronch-rayin Kothi Máthas, Ranshyán, Dhanshyán; dwápar-shúl muluk máti thati zikyák, Lánká máryák,

The Doms of the plains.

The Chamars of the plains doubtless.

dash-Rában kháňchyák, Bánáshur háryák, bág báňtho Ropá gomfá chumak, jú muluk matī thátí Skyálkharú shong Rogiú thud té'g tége dútá pretá Ráná Thákrá máryák, rákhul shukhul lán lán Káňchí nagarích bái chháng ká ká, Saránang raj pát zikyák Deorájí-pang thü átí arzí láno duyíň ?

Translation.

"O Kothî máthas, O Ranshyán, O Dhanshyán, wait a little, hear: after the dwápar jug I created the earth and its countries, I destroyed Laňká and killed Rában of the tenheads. Bánáshur was defeated by me, and taking my share I came up to reside in the temple of Ropá village; this country of the world, from Shyálkhar down to Rogí village, was inhabited by goblins, ghosts, Ránás and Thákars, who were destroyed by me. I established peace and prosperity, and having brought a young Bráhman from Káňchí city, I established my throne at Saráhan. Say, what do you wish to ask the deity?

A chronological list of the Buddhist Religious observances in Kanavar.

(1) The Kángso, a religious ceremony, in which the hóm, pújá and páth are performed by the lámás and zamos (nuns): observed in every temple throughout the Kanáwar valley on the 8th, 10th, 12th and 14th of the bright half, as well as on the full moon and amáwas of each month.

(2) The Zinshok, celebrated in Kánam on the 8th of the bright half, as well as on the full moon, of each month, in-

cluding the amiwas.

(3) The Torgyá, performed at Kánam, once on the 14th of the bright half and again on the full moon of Phágun.

(4) The Toná, also celebrated in Kánam village on the

11th of Chait for one day.

- (5) The Tibángmá, performed in Kánam village on the 20th of Paush.
- (6) The Kutimf, also celebrated in Kánam village on the 15th of Phágun.

(7) The Námgang, also observed in Kánam village, for two days from the amáwas of every month. Hóm, pújá and

páth are performed by the lámás and zamos.

(8) The Shibrat (fr. Sanskrit Shivaratri), the birthday of Shib or Mahadeo), is a religious ceremony not only of the Hindus, but also of the Buddhists. It takes place on the 14th of the dark half of Phagun, on which day the people adore Shib, whom they call Lofan, and distribute food among relatives and friends.

l Ranshyán and Dhanshyán are both septs of Kanets residing near Kothi or Kostampi village.

(9) The Shonetang (fr. Sanskrit Shrávanarchana, meaning 'worship of Sáwan') is celebrated in Grámang or Kathgáoň village in Bhábá parganá on the full moon of Sáwan. About a dozen young men, taking with them cooked food for three days, go out to gather wild flowers and plants from the loftiest snow peaks. They pass two nights there, collecting various kinds of wild flowers and plants, and on their return they are received with joyous music by the villagers. The garland which they bring from the forest is offered to the deity, and they then, together with women, dance and sing songs.

(10) The Lámá-pazá, a Buddhist religious rite observed in Lábrang village, Shúwá parganá, on the amáwas of Chait. The lúmás and zamos devote themselves to the worship of the deity called Chhákoling Dambar, while dancing and singing are per-

formed by men and women with great rejoicings.

(11) The Jágro (fr. Sanskrit Jágarana, a vigil) is also a religious ceremony, observed throughout the Kanáwar valley on the 20th of Bhádo. The night is spent in singing and dancing to music, and the worship of the deity is performed in all the temples.

A list of the fairs held in Kanáwar, with a brief description of each.

(1) Lósar, or New Year's Day, is observed at Kánam for three days, from *Paush shudi* 13th till the full moon of *Paush*. All the people assemble to ask the *lámás* about their gains and losses during the coming year, It is the most characteristic fair of the Kanáwar valley. Feasts are given to friends and relatives, but dancing by men and women to music is the chief function.

(2) The Kángyur-zálmo (fr. Kángyur, library and zálmo, a visit) takes place on the 15th gaté of Hár (Ashárh) at Kánam. People visit the Tibetan Library called Kángyur-tángyur, in the large village of Kánam.

(3) The Menthakó fair also takes place at Kánam village on the 20th gaté of Bhádo (August) and lasts two days. The chief event at this fair is a pony-race, feasting, drinking, danc-

ing to music and singing.

(4) The Khwákchá fair takes place at Kánam village and lasts for 5 days from the 20th gaté of Mágh, ending on the 25th of the month. The nights are passed in dancing and singing to

music before the temple of the deity called Dábla.

(5) The Gángá fair takes place in Chángmang forest above Lippá, a village in the Shúwá parganá on the full moon of Kátik. Men, women and children climb up to the Changmang forest, and eating, drinking, dancing and singing songs are features of the festival.

(6) The Jokhyá-kushimig and Jokhyá-chhugshimig at

Kánam are important festivals, at which visits are paid to relatives and friends, on the 13th and 14th gate of Magh

(January).

(7) The Ukhyáng (fr. ú, a flower, and khyáng, a sight of) is the most remarkable fair of the Kanáwar valley. The people go to the high ranges to gather wild flowers and leaves, and offer a large garland of them to the deity. Men and women in rich attire also dance and sing the following song:—

¹ Jugli ukhyáng Rupí Térasú, Rupí Térasu sái bhádre, Bárang ukhyáng nijá bhádrang, bangshyá pábang bangshyá

Hátú nígyo loshgar muňdyál ? Kinú nígyo Bárang Náges. Shú-minu ukhyáng shopché pábang, shopche pábang ú tá

Há-lá-sá lán-te, hé hálá-sá lán té.
Ráchukánang muňdyál hátú ránté?
Ránim ránté Márkáling shú-pang,
Shishyurú muñdyal hátú ránté?
Ránim ránté Gandrápású bálé.
Dágchis dugchis ukhyáng Yáná Mellamú bálé.
Bhábá Maheshrasú ukhyáng bang-gé golchháng,
Rájá báňthas Shumshér Singh Rájá,
Shú banthasí Bhábá Maheshras,
Shú báňthiní Shúwáng Chaňdiká,
Zgui kulang-tí Tukpá khunangó,
I kulang-tí Shúwáng patannangó.

Expanded Translation.

"The fair called Ukhyáng is held first at Rupí village 2 (in Pandarabís parganá) in honour of the village deity, named Téras, 3 on the 10th of Bhádo (August).

In Bárang village of the Inner Tukpá parganá, it takes place on the 20th gaté of Bhádo, when the upper forests are

full of wild flowers and plants.

For whose sake is this monkish garland ⁵ O Nages ⁶ of Barang 'tis for your good sake.

The Ukhyang fair of the Shuwa pargana people takes place when the forest is dry, in the dry forest there are no flowers.

What is to be done then? Again we say, what is to be done?

8 Téras, the deity of Rupi village.

¹ This song was said by Gurampati of Bárang village in 1904.

PANDIT TÍZÁ RÁM JOSHÍ.

² Rupi is a village in Pandarabis parganá.

Bárang, a village in Inner Tukpá parganá.

Loshgar, the monkhood flower.
Náges, the deity of Bárang village.

Behold a garland of ráchúkánang; 1 to whom are we to offer it?

It must be offered to Markaling.2

Again, to whom should we offer a garland of shishyur 8? We must offer it to the deity of Yana or Mellam, by name Gandrapas.*

Where is the remainder of the fair held?

The fair of Maheshras, the Bhábá parganá the deity, takes place when the autumn moon is full.

A handsome Rájá is Rájá Shumsher Singh,

And Maheshras, the deity of Bhábá, Like Shúwá Chaňdiká, is beautiful.

In Tukpá parganá there are nine water channels,

But Shuwa pargana has only one."

(8) Shogch fair is held at Chini village, and lasts for 5 days, from Mangar shudi 10th to the full moon of that month. People from all the surrounding villages assemble to dance and sing, and a great deal of merriment results.

(9) Ráthin fair is also held in Chíní on the 1st of Paush

and is celebrated by dancing and singing.

(10) The Agtarang fair at Richpá or Rispá village in the Inner Tukpá rarganá lasts for one day. All the people of the surrounding villages assemble, and dancing and singing before

the temple of Kulyó deity are the features of the fair.

(11) The Mang fair is also observed at Richpa and lasts for about a week from the 18th of Magh. The lámás and zamos (nuns) devote themselves to the worship of Buddha, men and women dance and sing to music with great merriment till the end of the fair.

(12) The Yungnas or Jungnas fair is also held at Richpa in Paush, the exact day being fixed by the zamîndârs to suit their own convenience, and it lasts for five days. Worship of Buddha is observed with general rejoicings. Eating, drinking, dancing and singing are the principal features of the fair.

(13) The Sherkan fair is held in Kánam village on the 3rd

of Katik and lasts but one day.

Markáling, deity of Khwangi, a village in Shuwa pargana.

⁵ Bhábá is a parganá in the Wáng valley.

Ráchú-kánang, a plant which has leaves like a calf's ears, whence its name.

Shishyur, a plant found on the snowy peaks.
Gandrápás, the deity of Yáná or Mellam, a village in Rajgáon parganá.

Maheshras (2nd), the deity of Bhábá parganá.
7 Shúwang Chandiká, the goddess of Kothi or Kostampi, a village in Shúwá parganá.

- (14) Dumgyur-zálmo fair takes place at Kwálda, a village in Shúwá pargana, on an auspicious day appointed by the zamindars in Hár (Ashárh). Dumgyur means a Buddhist prayingwheel, and zalmo, a visit. The people visit the huge prayingwheel, and turn it round to the right as many times as they may be allowed.
- (15) Kailás-zálmo, or 'the visit to the Kaílás mountain' celebrated in Píló or Spíló, a village in Shúwá parganá, on any auspicious day in Hár fixed at the will of the zamîndárs, and lasts one day. Worship of the Kailás mountain is performed with great rejoicings, dancing and singing being the main features of the fair.
- (16) The Khepá fair is observed, throughout the Kanáwar valley, for three days from Mangar badi saptami to Mangar badi dasmi. The people bring thorns and put them on the doors of their houses in order that no evil spirit may enter therein, and on the 3rd day they take all the thorns outside the village and burn them, as if they were burning an evil spirit. Dancing and singing with music are main features of the fair.
- (17) The Rás-káyang (rás, fr. Sanskrit ráshi, a zodia-cal sign, and káyang fr. Sanskrit káya body) is the day on which the sun reaches the zodiacal sign of Aries. In India it is generally known as the Meshî-saňkranti or Vishuva-saňkránti. Throughout the Simlá Hill States it is called Bishú. This fair is celebrated throughout the Kanáwar valley and throughout the Simlá Hill States on the 1st of Baísákh. The houses are well white-washed and decorated, and dancing and singing with great rejoicings are the main features of the fair.

(18) The Lábrang-zálmo fair takes place at Kánam village on the 17th of Jéth. At this fair people visit the temple of the god Dáblá, and dance and sing there with great rejoicings.

- (19) The Chhokten-zálmo fair is held at Lábrang, a village in Shúwá parganá, on the 15th of Hár. People visit the temple called Chhokten at Lábrang. Singing and dencing to music are its main features.
- (20) The Suskar fair is observed in Kothi or Kostampi village, as well as elsewhere, about a week from the 9th of Phágun. Two parties, one of young men, and the other of young women, fight with snow-balls until they are tired. Singing and dancing to music before the goddess Shúwáng Chaňdika are the main features of the fair.
- (21) The Jagang fair also takes place in Kothi village on the 3rd of Magh, and lasts for a day. Dancing and singing songs to music, and worship of the deity, are performed with great rejoicings. Jagang is derived from Sanskrit yajna, meaning sacrifice.

(22) The Bishu fair is the same as the Rás-káyang, which

takes place on the 1st of Baisakh. In Upper Kanawar, people

call it Rás-káyang, and in Lower Kanáwar, Bishú.

(23) The Bang-káyang fair is held in Grámang or Kathgáon, a village in Bhábá parganá on the full moon of Paush. All the people of Bhábá parganá assemble in the temple of Maheshras and worship him. Dancing and singing are the main features of the fair.

Mr. Schnabel points out how the so-called Buddhists are

by no means free from-

"Furcht vor vielen Naturgottheiten, Dämonen und Gespenster. Der eine grosse Hebel der lamaistischen Frömmigheit ist der Wunsch, die Seele vor den Höllen zu erretten und dem Paradiese zuzuführen, während der andere, ganz anders wirksamere Hebel die Furcht vor den bösen Geistern ist. Diese zwingen unsere Talbewohner, ihnen Opfer darzubringen, vermöge ihrer geheimnisvollen Macht die Leben, den zu peinigen und ihnen allerlei Unheil zuzufügen. Aller Dämonen und Teufelsdienst wurzelt in der Furcht. Der Geisterdienst mit der ihm zugrunde liegenden Furcht füllt das religiose Leben unsrer Tibeter völlig aus. Bei Geburt, Namengebung, Brautschau, Heirat, Hausbau, Aussaat, Ernte, beim Bäume tällen, im Streit und Kampi, beim Feldbau, Handel etc. wollen die Geister oder Lhas berücksichtigt sein und haben wir in unserm Dorf allein drei Personen, auf or in welche sich verschiedene Lhas versenken aber jeder dieser drei Orakelmänner hat seine ganz bestimmten Lhas. Z.B. heisst einer von ihnen Sadnam(b) zangpa, in den sich Dabla, Dsodum, Abi Man, Besara einsenkt oder niederläfst; ein anderer, namens Nomphal, spricht das Orakel nur vom Kesar rgyalpo und der Kali, während der dritte, Chophel genannt, es mit Dani kyung s'ru, Vor kyung s'ru und Nying kyung s'ru und keinen anderen Lhas zu tun hat.

Am Schlügs machte ich bloss noch das ञ्चल्याच्या । ञ्चल्याच । lha a babpa und lha zhugspa, der zerabrtessegen einer Gottheit auf oder in einen Menschen, da dern dann Perakal duerselben ausspricht, schildern, was besi vielen mehr tutiresse erwecken dürfte." Mr. Schnabel then goes on to describe the Lhāpā, for an account of which reference must be made to the Glossary of Tribes and Castes, Punjab, s. v.

I.—Wazír Mansukh Dás' Song.

The following song relates to Wazír Mansukh Dás, grandfather of Wazir Ran Bahadur Singh, who was a very able man, and who died of illness at Simla when he had come down to a Darbár there.

> Khóná Rámpúrá, Tukpáú wazírí, Tukpáú wazírí Mansukh Dás Wazír.

Mansukh Dásas lótash, áng káyathas hám tan ? Ang deháng dám máe, í káglí ché-rayin. Ché-mig tá ringtóyiň, byórá thü shenmig? Byórá tá sherayin, ámájíú dhálang, áng deháng dám máe, Shankras tólyá-rayin. Ang kanesá nyótang, ráting láe lán-rayin. Shupá punmá shúpáí tólyáyiň, som punmá somí tólyáyiň. Rái dyáró, máňjó, de-li-ú Púwárí. Wazirú thud thápen, anenú ámá jiú. Hálásá lonmig, anenú ámájiú? Anenú ámájíú, Relanú bistániú. Báho-chú parmí, Biranú bistániú. Bistánis dakk lótash, áng saňgiú kanesá, thú-li búchaňyáň? Fói tá mání. Wazir pirang paréshid; gud kuló krábgyos. Relnú bistánis lótash, sachí-ú árkólang. Thủ pirang paryásó, thí-dá-thí lánté. Dámbar tólyáté, shelmánu gunkar lánté. Chil-chilí zarmig bérang, Dámbarú deorangó, Shankrasas lótash, thü lí tólyá-cha-yiň? Kimó chályá-rayin, gróhang gü nétak. Paltyatá bútash, khóná Rámpúrá. Waziras ishid. Dámbar thủ lóshid? Dámbar tá lóshid, kimó chályá-ra-yiň. Zílá Sáhibas lótash, kí kimó thá bí-yiň, shelmánu gunkar lánté, shong shong chályáté. Simalé Darbáró, man ban thí man ban? Zilá Sahab man ban, gun má lágyádo. Stish půrí, shell ke-ké, rái dyáró máňjó, rái dyáró máňjó, jiú li dúbyá-gyos, bangyó bishárang, anenú kanesáú; hálá lonmig ámáú, hálá lonmig parmíú? Lonmig gyátó íchú, arkolang nirmání. Rái dyárú májang, deliú Púwári, bistánis dakk loshid, thú buyiň saňgiú kanesá? Fói tá máni, wazir dú-byá gyos. Wazírú bístání, tul-túlí míg-tí. Gud kul-kul krábgyos anenú ámá. Hálásá lánmig? Ang zángú díwang, pachis má paréch, ku-ku má thásto. Pazírú bennang, stish títhang zálgyos.

Translation.

stish títhang zálgyos, darsan má parás.

In the plain of Rámpúr dwells the minister, the Wazír Mansukh Dás, who said:—'Where is my clerk? I am not feeling well. Write a letter.'—' You ask me to write a letter,

but what am I to say in it?'- 'First give greeting to my beloved mother, and say I am not well, and that she should pray to Shankras, the deota. O my friends! Both of you should pray to the deota in the evening if you arrive in the evening; and in the morning, if you arrive early.' Within a week they had reached Pwari. The minister's mother was in the upper storey of her house, but how could they give her their tidings? His mother's name was Relanú bistáni,2 and his well-loved wife's Biranu bistáni. The latter said: 'O comrades of my husband, why have you come ? '-They replied :- 'Not without a purpose, for the minister is ill.' Hearing this she began to weep and wring her hands: and the aged mother asked:—'Is it true or false? We must do something to cure him. What disease has he? We will consult his deota, and try to heal him with drugs, etc.' Next morning, near Shankras' temple, the deota said:—'Why do you consult me? Bid him come home and I will do him good.' So they went back, and on reaching Rámpúr the minister asked them what Shankras deota had said.—"Shankras has said: Why are you asking me? the minister to come home, and then he will be safe." Deputy Commissioner of Simla looked after him like a father. with more than a parent's care, and gave him seven pills. But a week or so later the minister breathed his last, to the deep regret of all. His companions were much distressed, and said: 'What shall we say to his mother, and to his wife?' A week later they had reached Pwari, and the minister's beloved wife asked why they had come. They replied:—'Not for pleasure, but in sorrow, to tell you that the minister has gone to They (the women) began to weep and wring their hands. His mother said: 'What now can be done? Where is my beloved son, who was like a golden lamp?' Love for her son made her say: 'I cannot get such a worthy son now.' She made a pilgrimage to the seven sacred places, but could find no peace.

II.—THE SONG OF LAPCHO BIST.

The following song describes the late Tiká Raghu Náth Singh's marriage. On the return from Mandi cholera broke out and more than 1,500 people, both of Mandi and Basháhr, succumbed. Wazir Jwálá Dás and Wazir Dewá Sukh Lápcho Bist also perished. The latter died at the spring, between Gaurá and Gopálpur, about 80 miles from Simlá, called the Physician's Spring (Baid kí bawrí). It is so called because a physician (baid) who had come up to the hills to cure the sick,

¹ Shankras is the name of the deity of Pwari village in the Inner Tukpa pargana.

2 Fem. of bist, the Kanawari for wazir or minister, and used as the title of his wife or mother.

reached this spring, drank its water, and thinking that in a country which had so fine a climate, there was a little hope of finding any sick, turned back.

Mahárájas lótash, Lápcho bist hám tan? Jilyújí maháráj, Lápcho bist jwá máech. Gyámig kí tonmá, áryá mí shé té. Nyótang házrí bí-gyos, khoná Lábrangá. Khoná Lábrangá, Lápchoú duwáré. Lápcho ú pé-rangá, Negí tashá máesh? Negí ton tá tashá, chhatkangú ampí; chhatkangú ampí Yum-póthí silo. Jú káglí tí-ra-viň, Láxcho bistu gudó. Bistas tá lótash, báho chhángá báňchyáň-yiň, báho chháng tá lótash, bápú kí báň-chyáň-yiň, gü tá má-né-tak. Da káglí kumo, byorá thü dush? Byorá tá lonmá, bistú shong chámmig, Bistánis dakk lóshid, "kí shong thá bí-ra-yiň taúlá díváro, "maháráju wáng den, bímig tá ggá-tak, Mandi byáhang bímig. Man-banú tá pyúshim, duwiré nérang: báho parmiú pyúshim, bairang kaňkaní dená, brálmig má chál chál, tul-tulí mig-tí Mig-tí twán má-gyách, gü shyúris bútak. Dakk shong shongi bi-má, khoná Rámpúrá; jilyújí maháráj, thü áryá-cha-yíň-yáň? Foi tá-li mání Mandi byáhang bímig. Mandí byáhang bímá, kanes hát kétayiň? Kanes tá kétak, Chángpáú Lámá Deliá. Bímig tá lótayiň painan thü kétayíň? Painan tá kétak réshamú chhúbá. Lápcho bistú tánges, pálgi bunyá gyos. Ring bunmigú bérang, pírang paryá-gyos; ring ringi bunmá, rágú báyé dená, rágú báyé dená; Lápchó bistas lótash, " Chángpáú Deliá Lámá, áng shíshó ló kárayin, áng múrtí khítak múrtí khímá khímá, múrtí mailá háchis; ádang láyé beró, Lápchó dú-byá-gyos.

Translation.

The Rájá of Basháhr asked:—'Where is the Lápcho minister, Dewá Sukh by name?'—'Sire, the Lápcho minister is not here; but if Your Highness wants him, we will send for him. Two attendants went up to the level lands of Lábrang village to the Lápcho minister's door (asking): 'O kinsman of the Lápcho,' is the minister here or not?'—'Yes, there he is, in

l Lápcho, a sept of Kanets found in Lábrang village: probably from Lábrangpá, 'an inhabitant of Lábrang.'

front of his temple, reading the Buddhist scripture.'-'Take this letter and deliver it into his own hands, we pray you.'—The minister said :- 'Dear son, read me the letter.' But his son replied: 'You must read it, dear father, as I do not know how to read.'- 'What is the purport of the letter?' 'Its purport is to bid you to go down, so that you may go to Mandi with the wedding party.' The minister's wife said:— 'As it is very hot, you ought not to go down.'- 'Under the Rájá's orders it is imperative that I should go down, for we shall have to go to the wedding of the heir-apparent.'-So his parents accompanied him to the doorway, and his dear wife escorted her husband as far as the gate of the village, and even beyond it; in her grief at parting, tears rolled down her cheeks. 'You must not weep, for I shall soon be back.' So going down and ever down he reached Rámpúr, and said:—'O victorious king! Why have I been summoned? '-' It was not for amusement, but because we have to go to Mandí for the Tíká Sáhib's wedding.' 'Who then will be my companion?'-'Delia, Lámá of Chángo 1 village.'- 'What about my dress?'- 'O, as for dress, you will get a silk robe.'—A palanquin stands ready for the Lapcho minister, Dewa Sukh by name. On his return from Mandí the Lápcho minister fell ill of the loathsome cholera. Journeying up and ever up at the spring called the Physician's Spring, the Lapcho minister said:—'O Delia, Lama of Chango, bring me my looking-glass, that I may see my face.' Looking at his face again and again the Lapcho minister breathed his last at midday.

III.—Wazir Faté Jit's Song.

A Historical Song.

The following is an old song of the Gurkhá War time, when Wazír Fatè Jít or Fatè Rám, great-grandfather of Wazír Ran Bahádur Singh, an able minister of the Basháhr State, after holding a great assembly of the seven parganás of Kanáwar, got rid of the Gurkhás in a very ingenious way. They say that his plan was to put stones from the bed of the Sutlej into a number of boxes, and hand them over to the Gurkhás without the keys, saying that it was all the treasure of the State, and that they could take it and quit Basháhr. This they agreed to do and left the country.

Morathú thusko Kyálkharú yor, Dum lángyo khoná Rámpúrá, Stish khunangú májang, khunangú báll Ginam, I káglí cheshid, Karam bistú chhángas,

Chángpá, of Chángo, a village in Shuwá parganá.
 Which lies about 1½ miles north of Gaura bungalow.

Karam bistú chhángú, námang thú dúgyos ? Námang tả đúgyo, Fate Jit bist, Dagolyú dang hát dú? Negí Dhangchú chhána. Námang thú dúgyo? Zambud Rám námang. Dagolyú nyumch hát tó? Pujyáresú chháng. Námang thú dúgyo? Námang lonmá Shipat. Shipat káglí fígyo, ring Kanóring desháng, Da káglí báňchyáo, cheí stish khunang, Káglio cheshid thủ dú? káglio cheshid nú dú, Ukhyángú bí-mo, Ormig shú shérayíň, Ormig shú shérayíň, Ginamú Ormig shú.

Translation.

From the ridge of Maleuti up to Kyálkhar (from all Kanáwar)

A grand assembly is to be held at Rámpúr.

Ginam is the chief of the seven parganás of Kanáwar. The son of Wazir Karm Sukh wrote a secert order.

What is his name? He is called Wazir Fatè Jit.8 Who is his companion? A son of the Dhangch, the negi of Ginam.

What is his name? He is called Zambud Rám. Who is his companion? His companion is a son of the Pujyáres.

What is his name? His name is Shipat. Who carried the letter up to Kanawar?

That letter was read by all the officials of the seven

parganás.

What was its purport? It was written in it that All the people should come down to the Lawi fair at Rámpúr,

And that the village deity of Morang, by name Ormig, should also be brought down.

(The rest of this song cannot be procured.)

IV.—KALAN PUR NEGI'S SONG.

The following song dates from the time when Negi Kalan Pur was imprisoned on some charge by the Rájá of Basháhr. He was afterwards released by Zorú of Rushkhalang ghori. The song is in the Shumchho dialect.

Kyálkhar is the Kanáwar name for the Shyálkhar fort, where the Tibetan frontier commences. 8 Dhangch is the name of a sept of Kanets found in Morang or

¹ Morathú is the Kanáwar name for the Maleuti ridge between Saráhan and Tráňdá, where the Kanáwar valley begins.

Ginam, a village in Inner Tukpá parganá. • Ormig is the name of the deity of Morong or Ginam village.

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Jetháro Lawípá Loklasú chháng Zorú,
Loklasú chháng Zorů, chhé khabarí dúgyo?
Hed tá chhé khabarí, giraú ácho tugótash,
Tálingshyá Kárgyut. Acho Kárgyut lotash,
Ang báiche Kálan, kinú hát má sheshchak?
Hán tak má hán tak, gyálboú arbá lántak,
Kálan baňdwá khólyáyíň, paisá sililí shétak.
Tálingshyá Kárgyut, kaňchhá Gaňgyulpáú chháng,
Haló chhuló zabán nang, gyábting marjyád málán,
Marjyád má lánmá, thág-tug tungú chhé-lámá.

Translation.

"O Zorú, son of Loktas,1

What's the news from the Lawí fair at Rámpúr?''
"What other news is there? Your eldest brother
Kárgyut of Táling village is coming up.''

And his brother Kargyut said,

"O brother Kálan Púr, who does not know you?

If I can, I'll petition His Highness for your release."

"O victorious king, I have a request, be pleased to release Kálan Púr, I'll pay the fine."

But the tongue of the Gangyul 2 man's younger son, Kargyut,

Is not staunch, for afterwards he did not keep his word.

If a man does not keep his word, it is useless for him to eat and drink.

V.

A Historical Song.

The following song describes the late Tiká Raghunáth Singh's escape from Basháhr to Sirmúr in 1883, owing to his dislike of the proposed matrimonial alliance with Maňdí, which he was afterwards induced to accept, Wazír Ran Bahádur Singh being then his trusted adviser. His attendants were not thrown into jail, but were sent by the Superintendent of the Simla Hill States to Jungá, where they were received by the Rájá of Keoňthal as his guests.

Tíká Sáhibas lotash, áng hushyárí hám tan f Hushyárí loshímá, Tukpáú wazírí, Tukpáú wazírí, Ran Bahádur Singh, Ran Bahádras lotash, thú ringtoyíň maháráj f

Loktas, a sept of Kanets, found in Kanam, a village of Shuwa pargana.
 The name of a ghori as well as that of a dialect.

Ringmig tá thứ ringtak, payín banbás bíté, Maňdí byáhang losho, áng má khushí budá, Námang má zúshé, nú Mandiú Rániú. Ran Bahádras lotash, nú bátang má-ní, Kin bápújí kocháng, ángú rono shechó. Kinú rono shenmá, ángú shechis bróbar. Dái pór má sángstang, áng pálgi tólyáyiň, Ang chální hám toyin? Ang chhariyá hám toyin? Ang pálgi tólyáyiň, áng chhari tólyáyiň. Dái pór má sángstang, Tikó máesh lósho, Bangyó bishárang, anenú bápú jiú. Dak nesh neshí bímá, Sirmóring darbáro, Sirmóring darbáro, Rájá Shamshér Pargás, Shamsher Pargás lotash, hám bimo ki budá? Ran Bahádras loshid, nishí shelí bushid, Kisí shélí mání, kisí banbás lósho, Maňdí byáháng loshó, Tiko má khushi lángyos. Maňdí byáhang má lánmá, áng deiji tírayiň. Tíká Sáhibas loshid, bápújí-pang íták. Simlé sáhibú hukam, Sirmóring darbáro. Tíkáu Simlé shérayín, mánimá muluk jáfat, Rái dyáro májang, Tiká Simlé pushid, Simlé darbár háchis, an bápú lí bushid. Bulbulí sángmig beró, Simlé darbár háchis, An bápus dak loshid, sáí mí rono shenmig. Palbarú majángo, sáí mí rono shéshid.

Translation.

Tíká Sáhib saíd, "Where's my clever The official?''

(By the clever official he meant the minister of Tukpá parganá,

By name Ran Bahádur Singh.)

Who, presenting himself before the Tiká Sáhib, said :-

"What is Your Highness' order?"

"What else can I say, but that we should go into exile.

They talk of the Mandi marriage, but I do not like it." I do not care even to hear the Mandi Ráni's name. Ran Bahádur Singh replied: "No, it is not good, For Your Highness' father, the Rájá Sáhib, will take it ill, and he will put me in irons."

The Tika Sahib said: "If you are imprisoned, then it is as if I were imprisoned.

Have my palanquin ready at midnight.

Where are my palanquin bearers? Where are my gold and silver stick holders?

Hold up the sticks and go on."

It was known to all before daybreak that the Tika Sahib was not there

And this news greatly surprised the Rájá.

Going straight down, the Tiká Sáhib reached Náhan, And the palace of Rájá Shamsher Prakásh of Sirmúr, Who inquired why the Tiká of Basháhr had come.

Wazir Ran Bahadur Singh replied, "We have come down for pleasure."

"No, no, not for pleasure, you are said to have escaped from Bashahr," replied the Raja of Sirmur.

Wazīr Ran Bahádur Singh said: "There is talk of the Tíká Sáhib's alliance with Mandí, but the Tíká Sáhib does not approve of it."

"If he dislikes the Mandi match, then he may make an alliance with Sirmur," added the Raja of Nahan.

To which the Tiká Sáhib replied that he would ask his father about it.

An order from the Superintendent of the Simlá Hill States reached the court at Náhan that

It would be better for the Rájá of Sirmúr to send the Tíká of Basháhr at once up to Simlá.

After a week the Tiká Sáhib came to Simlá.

The Rájá of Basháhr also arrived there.

Next morning was held a darbár of the Superintendent of Hill States,

In which the Rájá of Basháhr asked the Superintendent to imprison the ten servants of the Tíká Sáhib,

And in a trice they were thrown into jail.

VI.

A Historical Song.

The following song was composed in praise of the late Tiká Raghunáth Singh, C.I.E., after the settlement of the State, when he came to Simla to attend a Darbár.

Tika Sahibu qaida, beqaida mani,
Beqaida mena, zahteu thoring qaida,
Zabteu thoring qaida, zulum thachchi maech,
Tika Sahibas lotash, ang hushyari ham tan?
Hushyari majango, nyotang hazri ham tan?
Hushyari ta lonma, Akpa Charasu chhang,
Nga rupaya tata, Tikau mujro langyos.
Tika Sahibas lotash, "Ya Sanam Sukh hazriri,
Hun ta bimig hach?, Simle Darbar hacho."

Sanam Sukhas lóshid, "Ang bolás tá mání." Kán bolás má nímá, hátú bolás nító? Jilyújí Mahárájá, kí lí bímá bútak.

Translation.

There is no misrule under the government of the Tíká Sáhib,

All the regulations are most just, There is no oppression in any thing.

The Tiká Sáhib said, "Where is my worthy pair of attendants?"

"And of the pair, Where is the clever attendant?" (By the clever attendant he meant the cháras 1 of Akpá ² village, named Sanam Sukh.)

After presenting Rs. 5 he humbly proferred saluta-

tion to the Tiká Sáhib,

Who said to him, "O Sanam Sukh,

Now we have to go down, there's a darbar at Simlá.''

Sanam Sukh replied, "O my Lord, it is not in my power."

The Tika Sahib replied, "If you won't go, then who would ? "

"O my Lord, if Your Highness will go, then I must attend."

VII.

A Historical Song.

The following song was composed in 1891, when the late Tíká Raghunáth Singh, C.I.E., established the tahsíl at Chíní, and appointed Negi Jitbar as its Tahsildar.

> Tíká Sáhibas lótash, áng hushyárí hám tó? Hushyárí tá lonmá, Negí Jítbar Kharyán. Jítbar Kharyán Negi, Chíní bímig gyátó, Chíní bimig gyátó, tahsíl béshyámó. Negi Jitbar lótash, áng bólás tá máni. Nú rákshasú muluk, Shuwáng Chandiká kócháng. Kin bolás má nímá, hátú bólás nító? Bíbí tá lótayiň, munshí hát kétayin? Munshí tá kétak, Múrat Singh munshí. Munshí tá kérayíň, káyath hát kétayíň? Káyath tá kétak, Répáltú chhángá, Répáltú chhángá, Hirdá Rám káyath.

¹ Charas, a headman.

² Akpá, a village in Shúwá parganá celebrated for its grapes.

Káyath tá kérayin, buthungrú hát kétayin? Buthuňgrú tá kétak, Sáňglá-ú dekhrá, Sángláú dekhrá, Thákur Dás Negí. Jítbar Negí lótash, bagár thwáyámig, Dái nijá bagár, dái nijá khazán. Rái dyáro májang, Rushmaulú Chíni, Farangiú kóthí, hunakchú tahsíl, Hunakchú tahsíl, Jítbar bunyágyos. Múrt Singh munshí lótash, thú jágá dúgyo? Shong káchyáng khimá, sámneú títhang, Kailás parbati, kansang Saránang. Jítbar Negí lótash, kisáng shélí bíte, Kisáng shéli, bite, má jang Kostampi. Dak shong shongi bímá, Chandikáú deorangó, Chandikáú deorangó, Chandiká shárshim gyátó. Chandikás tá lótash, "Thú shárshim gyátó? Thú shárshim gyátó? Huná ádang láyé? Jitbar Negi lótash, "Hukum ki lán-rayin, Chíní tahsíl loshó, khúshí má khúshí. Shúwáng Chaňdikás lóshid, áng niráj budá, Jítbar Negi, lótash, níráj bun má gyách, Nú shongchú húkum, sáring kém gyátayíň, Sáring kém gyátayíň, bagíchá bunyámo. Dak Chaňdikás lótash, gu sáring mā kék, Gu sáring má kék, áng paimáshú nirái. Gu Rámpúr jábtak, Tiká Sáhibú ampi, Tíkau jabáb rántak, áng má khúshí budá, Ang má khúshí budá, jimí nápyapá. Jítbar Negí rángyos, ngá rupayá nazar, Ngá rupayá nazar, Shúwáng, Chandikáu tánges. Yá Shúwáng Chaňdiká, jas bág dám lánrayíň. Dak ring ringi bunmá, Rushmaulo Chini, Rushmaulo Chíní, tahsílú ampí.

Translation.

The Tiká Sáhib said, "Where is my clever man?"
The clever man is Jitbar Kharyán Negi.
"O Jitbar Kharyán Negi, you must go to Chini, And establish a tahsil there."
Negi Jitbar replied: "It is beyond my powers,
The people of the country are worthless, and the goddess Chandiká is against (us)."

¹ A term for Rogi, Chini, Ywaring, Brêle, Dûni, Kostampi, Kosmê and Khwangi yillages.

A sept of Kanets in Pángí village in Shúwá parganá.
 A village in which the tahsildár of Kanáwar lives.

The name of the deity of Kostampi village, also called Shuwang Chendika.

"If it is beyond your powers, then within whose powers is it ?"

Negí Jítbar said: "If you order me to go, whom will you make my munshi?"

"Munshi Múrat Singh shall be your munshi."

"You have given me a munshi, but who shall be my writer ?''

"Your writer shall be the son of the Repaltu,1 Hirdá Rám.''

"You have given me a writer, but who will be my dafádár ?''

45 Your dajádár shall be the young man of Sánglá,2 Thákur Dás.''

Negí Jítbar said: "Despatch the kit."

Fifty coolies and Rs. 5,000 in cash

Within a week reached Chini,

Where there was an English bungalow.

There Negi Jitbar Kharyan now built a fine tahsil building.

Munshí Múrat Singh said, "What a place it is!

If we look, there's Kailás mountain, the sacred place of the Hindús,

Like the younger brother of Saráhan."

Negí Jítbar said: "Let us go for a walk Towards the village of Kothi or Kostampi.8

Then walking down and down, he reached the temple of Chandiká,

And said that he would like to ask something of Chandika.

Chandiká said: "What do you want to ask of me at midday?"

Negí Jítbar replied, "Your order is required

To establish the tahsil in Chini; are you pleased or not ?"

Chandiká replied, "I am not pleased."

Negí Jítbar said: "You should not be displeased:

It is an order from the plains.

Will you be pleased to give me the field at Chini,

To make a garden ?"

The Shuwa Chandika replied, "I will not give the field.

I am not satisfied with the settlement operations. I will go down to Rámpúr before the Tíká Sáhib,

And will give him an answer,

I am not pleased with the survey of the land."

8 A village in Shuwa pargana where Chandika's temple is.

¹ A sept of Kanets in Sánglá, a village of Outer Tukpá pargand. A village in Outer Tukpå parganá.

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Thereupon Negí Jítbar placed before Chandiká Rs. 5,

As a present, and prayed:

"O Shuws Chankids, be kind and bestow upon me glory and good fortune."

Then coming back up and ever up, He arrived before the tahsil of Chini.

VIII.

A Historical Ode.

The following ode is said to have been composed in 1888, when the late Tiká Raghunáth Singh, C.I.E., was sent for by his father-in-law, the Rájá of Mandí. Thence he paid a visit to Rawálsar.

Títhang náyám bíte, sámneú tithang, Sámneú títhang, Rawálsórú thóring, Rawálsórú thóring, dóbar láye béró, Dóbar láye béró, Maňdí Rájá tukto, Maňdí Rájá mání, Basháhro Tíká Sáhibá, Basháhro Tíká Sáhibá, rupayá chhárbá túré.

Translation.

We may go to bathe in Rawálsar,¹
The famous sacred place,
At midday.
Is that the Rájá of Maňdí who is coming down ?
No, not the Rájá of Maňdí,² but the Tíká Sáhib of Basháhr,
Who is coming raining coin.

IX.—THE SONG OF WAZÍR RAN BAHADUR SINGH.

The following song was composed in 1897, when the late Tiká Raghunáth Singh, C.I.E., summoned the late Wazir Ran Bahádur Singh to stand his trial for sedition in Dodrá Kwár.

Yochálo den tá, nyótang chaprásí, Nyótang chaprásí délíú Pwárí, Déliú Pwárí, wázírú, thud thápen. Wazírú bistání, wazír tashá má-esh? Wazírú thu lótayíñ? Hed tá thu lótak,

Rawálsar, a sacred place in Mandi territory.
The name of the late Rajá Mandi was Bijay Sén, and the late late Sáhib of Basháhr was his son-in-law.

Wazírú shong chám-mig. Bistánís dak lóshid, Gu chángé máshék, táto díyáro, Táto diváro, nyásí thwáyácho. Dak shong shongi bunmá, khoná Rámpúrá, Khoná Rámpúrá, májang ka-cha-río, Májang ka-cha-río, taktú den Tíká Sáhib, Gilimó den wazir, Ran Bahádur Singh, Milái láno, Shrí Tíká Sáhibú ampi.

Translation.

There arrived at Pwārí, at the minister's abode, Two chaprásis of the Rámpúr court, And in the upper storey of the house they asked: O honourable wife of the Tukpā wazir, is the wazir at home or not?" What have you to say to the wazir?" she asked. 'What else can we tell him but that he is summoned to Rámpúr." 'I won't send him down, because the weather is He will get ill," replied the minister's wife. Then coming down and ever down, they reached Rámpúr And the court of the Tika Sahib;

Taking a seat on a chair, granted a carpet to sit on, for Wazír Rán Bahadur Singh,

He proves himself to be innocent. Before Tíká Raghunáth Singh.

X.—THE SONG OF NEGI NABAYAN DAS.

The following song was composed in 1899 when Negí Náráyan Dás, of Rópá village in Upper Kanáwar, was murdered by his own brothers, who were at feud with him. Only one brother, who remained neutral in the quarrel, is alive, by name Rasbír Dás Lámá, of Rópá.2

> Nárán Dásas lotash, hun bímig háche, Kásáú Breling úkhyáng, rwáshis toyáň má toyíň? Dóbar láé beró bairí shárshíguos. Náráyanú bái band, roning báyággos. Májang omó man ban, Mewárú chhángá, Mewárú chhángá, Chhattar Maindup báiyár.

A village in Inner Tukpá pargand on the left bank of the Sutlej. ² This song was sung at Labrang village on the 25th of July 1900 by two girls by name Yangchen Dolmá and Sanam Zangmó.

Wazirú bistání, Charan Dásí bánthin, Charan Dásí bánthin, tul-tulí míg-tí. Chhattar Maindupas lotash, mig-ti twán má-gyách, Mig-tí twán má-gyách, ijap Tahsíló bítak. Chíní Tahsiló, Munshí Hirdá Rám. Munshí Hirdá Rám, Repáltuú chhángá. Hirdá Rámas lotash, Maindup dám toyin yán? Maindup dam toyin yan? Thú lí búchayin yan? I arzíú táwá, khúníú mámalá, khúníú mámalá, ráting chályátté. Tahsildáras lotash, bist chángé má dúbyás, Gangyulpá jálí, khúniú lágyátté. Chhattar Maindupas lotash, arkólang mání, nirmání tonmá, shong khabarí sheté. Shongchú hukum budá, yá Chíní Tahsildár, yá Chíní Tahsildár, mauká khyám kí derayiň. Tahsíldár dakk bígyos. Khágó chú Rópá, Khágó chú Rópá, Thólpáú puzíró. Náránuú bistání, tul-tulí mig-tí, Tahsíldáras lotash, mig-tí twán má gyách. Shongli chályátté, krigrú chháng hám to? i sandúk bunyárayiň, palbarú májangó, sandúk bunyágyos. Dakk shong songi bunmá, Jáňgi deshángó, Jáňaí deshángó, Misponú goríng den. Tahsildáras lotash, murdó fúkyárayíň. palbarú májángó, murdo fúkyágyos.

Translation.

Náráyan Dás said, "Now we must go to the temple-yard

Of Breling to celebrate our annual fair; are you ready or no?"

At midday, in the fair, his enemies arose,—

The brothers of Náráyan Dás,—and killed him with a stone.

At midday, the Mewaru's son, by name 1 Chhattar Maindup, gave parental aid

To the widowed wife of the minister, the beautiful woman.

By name Charan Dasi, rolling down tears in mourning.

Chhattar Maindup said, "You should not weep, I will go at once to the tahsil."

At Chini tahsil, the tahsil clerk Hirdá Rám, The son of Répáltú, inquired,—

¹ Mewár is a sept of Kanets living in Rópá village, Shúwá parganá.

"Are you well, Chhattar Maindup, Why have you come down ?"

He replied: "I have come down to report the murder of Náráyan Dás,

For that I am coming by day and night."

The Tahsildar replied: "No. not so, I believe that

Nárávan Dás is all right.

The people of Gangyul bring down false reports." Chhattar Maindup replied: "No, 'tis not false." "If it be true, I must report the matter to Ram-

púr."

An order came from Rámpúr saying, "O Jítbar, Tahsildár of Chíní,

Go at once to enquire into the case on the very spot."

The Tahsildar then went up for the enquiry to Khágo,1

And at Ropá in the Tholpá's 2 house,

Where the widow was weeping for her husband.

The Tahsildar then said, "You ought not to weep."

"We will go down together. Where's the carpenter's son ?

Make a coffin for the body." In a short time the coffin was ready.

Then going down and ever down, they came after two days

To the village of Jangi, the Mishpon's house. The tahsildar then gave order to cremate the body. And in a short time the cremation rite was done.

XI.—THE SONG OF SANAM GURÚ SHÁHÚKÁR OF LIPPÁ.

The following song gives an account of the Chini tahsildár Jítbar Negí's asking the rich man of the Lippá village, by name Sanam Gurú, to lend him two ponies for bringing down the revenue money of the Chini Tahsil.

> Yocháló den tá, í káglí budá, *da kágli budá, márkhoná Lippá. márkhoná Lippá, baktábarú goré : baktábarú betá, námang thủ dugyos? Jesmang-shyá yungzé, Sanam Gurú Sháhukár. kansang-shyá yungzé, Sanam Rám sháhukár,

¹ Khágo means a saddle between two hills.

² Tholpá is the name of a sept of Kanets living in Ropá village in Shuwá parganá.

⁸ Jángi is a large village in Shúwá parganá. Mishpon is a sept of Kanets living in Jangi village in Shuwa parganá.

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Da kágli budá, Sanam Guruú gudó, áchó tá lótásh, bấyá kí báňcháňyiň, bayá tá lótash, áchó ki bánchányin. Achos tá báňcháshid, poshbángú den tá-tá; nú káalí kumó, byoró tá thủ dush? byoró tá lonmá, Tahsíldárú byoró, Tahsildárú byoró, rám rám sháhúkár, nyótang táwá kánayó skyó-ráng dáng gonmá; shum barshangú thurú, káchuk má-toyi gonmá. Rupayáú bárang skyubmó, Sanam Gurú sháhňkár. Sanam Gurú sháhúkár, gereó thoring jetaké, lumshis gereó thóring, gyábten rupayáú bárang. Dakk shong shongi bunmá, Chi-ni-ú Tahsiló, Sanam Gurus lótash, rám rám Tahsíldár: Tahsíldár lonmá, Kharyán bhandárí, Kharyán bandáriú, námang thủ dugyo? Námang, tá lonmá, Jítbar Tahsíldár.

Translation.

From down country, there came a letter. The letter arrived at the plain of Lippá, 1 In the house of the rich man, and of A rich man's son. What is his name? The elder brother is called Sanam Gurú. And the younger Sanam Rám. The letter was handed over to Sanam Gurú. The elder said: "O younger brother, read it," And the younger said, "O elder brother, you may read it." The elder read it, placing it on his knees. What is written in it? It contains the message of the Chini tahsildar:— "Good morning to you, O rich man, Please send a pair of ponies, a male and a female, A male of three years and a mare that has not foaled. O Sanam Gurú Sháhúkár, they are wanted to carry down the revenue-money." Sanam Gurú, riding on a mule, And putting the money behind him, And then coming down and ever down, reached Chíní tahsíl. And did obeisance to the tahsildar. The tahsildar is of the Kharyan sept, formerly a store-keeper.

Lippé is the name of a large village in Shúwá parganá.

Kharyán is a sept of Kanets in Pángí village in Shúwá parganá.

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What is his name? His name is Jithar tasildar.

XII.—Negí Shambhú Rám's Song.1

Composed in 1899 in the Shumchho dialect.

Hun bímig háché, rígen Chángmang, sántangó,
Rigen Chángmang sántangó, Shambhú Rám Negí,
Shambhú Rím Negí, shum koldung káyang,
Shum koldung káyang, gírángú láekú shyárá.
Zaú dúré hát tash? Zaú dúré tashá,
Zaú dúré tashá, Shambhú Rám Negí.
Ang chháng Shambhú Rám, girángú Lábrang thájaná.
Girángú Lábrang thájanhú, áid parmí bútó,
Aid parmí bunmá, garbanú d'b shwáshó,
Ulpaú hanzáru garban, gárban nish háché.

Translation.

Now must we to go to the temple courtyard called Chángmang.²
Where is Negí Shambbú Rám,
Whose body is very fat,
And who is one of our worthy sons?
Who is first in the dance?
First is the son of Loktas,⁸ by name Shambhú Rám.
O my son Shambhú Rám, you should not go to Lábrang,⁴
Because if you go there, a second wife will come for you,
And if she comes, the house will be divided,
And there will be two in one home.

XIII.—THE SONG OF THE PANDIT.

Basháharó minchhat, Ţíká Rám Pandít, gyálboú khásgí, Ţíká Sáhbú gúrú.
Námang tháshis také, múrtí tángshis máké, múrtí tá khyámá mameú sángá golchháng; zángú mulú muchhhé, darí shú minchhat.
Basháharú shyáná, hélí darsan pares gyách; omskó dhálangsmig sansár, nyumskó dhálangsmig-des.

¹ Shambhú Rám Negi is the son of Rám Parshád Loktas of Kánam village in Shúwá parganá, and healman of that village.

2 Chángmang is a forest some miles above Lippa village.

Loktas, a sept of Kanets found in Kanam village.
 Labrang, a village in Shuwa pargana in front of Kanam.

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> Tiká Rám Pándit, arak thú má tung-tóyiň? arak tá gü tungmá, ilim bó-shió; ilim boshió, áng hanzárú ilim.

Translation.

Well known in Basháhr is Pandit Tíká Rám. The Rájá's private secretary and the late Tíká Sáhib's spiritual father.

We had heard of him, but had not seen him.

When we see him we find him to be like the full moon,

Having a golden and silvery moustache, and remarkable for his beard.

He has tact in Bashahr: we should like to see him

Everyone in this world is saluted to his face, but he is worthy to be saluted even behind it.

"O Pandit Tíká Rám, why do you not take wine?" "If I use wine, then I shall lose my knowledge. Which is worth thousands of rupees."

THE SONG OF JWALAMUKHÍ.

Thi namanná namanná, Jwálámukhí títhang, Jwálámukhí títhang rágó mé baró, Rágó mé báskyáng, tío mé baró.

Translation.

What a wondrous spot is the sacred place of Jwálámukhí! Where fire burns in a stone; Besides burning in the stone, it burns into the water.

SUNNAM ZAMÔ'S SONG, IN THE SHUM-CHHO DIALECT.

The following is a song in the Shum-chhó dialect. Though the name is not known as to say whose it is, but it seems to be of any of the nuns (zamó) of the Sunnam village, as will be known from the subject of the song.

> Hun bímig háché, bul-búlí sáng tá. thau-sháng chhasórang, zon-bá dum-mig. Angú pyúskim bútó, shum-zanangú báskí. Dakk ring ring bi-má, Loktasú Shárting, í rátí béshí, Tábé maidánó.

Jwálámukhí is in Kángrá district. It is considered a great pilgrim place of the Hindrin.

Dakk ring ring bí-má, Yángkhuk dániú den, Yángkhuk dánió dwánmá, áú chí chháró. Da áú kúmó, tánfó tosh-ra-yiň, zamó chunmá chand, zamó chunmá májang, Zamó chunmá májang, áng í patak ringzé. Dak ring ring bunmá, Rúnang kánderó, Rúnang kánderó, kesá fáyul shestó, Kesá fáyul shestó, Kesá fáyul shesmá, Tanam maidáno, Ang pazirú kumo, áng Zaras kim-shú, Loktasú kim-shú, Tassíhombar memé.

Translation.

Now, at break of day, we have to go
To offer Divine worship, taking with us the Scripture of
the Buddhists.

The music of the three villages will escort us.

Then going up and ever up we arrived at Sharting,
And lodged for a night on the level land called Tabé.

Then proceeding again up and ever up, we reached the

peak called Yángkhuk,

Thence we hallooed down to say:—
"O you nuns of Kanam, may you live in peace";

Among all the nuns there,

Is a sister of ours!

Then going up again, we reached the peak of Runang,

Whence we see our native land In the meadows of Tanam.⁸

There is our home, and there our family god deity called Zarshú,

And Loktas Negi's family deity is called Tassihombal or Tassihombar.

Dumig Lama's Song.—(Love Song).

Dumig Lámá bió, Gyálchhá thang Kánam, Santánú thusko nyótang, gulbáshí bánthin, gulabáshí bánthin, chhwá lán-lán keyin; chhwá lán-lán báskyáng, migisi má khyách. Dumig Lámá, argáú shapthang thá láyin, kinú má shiját, nú wazírú bétí,

⁸ Tanam is a meadow near Sunnam village. Zar-shú is the name of a deity in Sunnam.

¹ Sharting is the name of a hamlet belonging to Loktas Negi of Kanam.

² Tábé is the name of a level land in Shárting. Yángkhuk is a peak near Sunnam village. Rúnang is also the name of a hill above Lippá village in Shúwá parganá.

Tassihombal or Tassihombar is the family deity of the Loktas sept of kanets.

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Hálé má shiját ringtoyiň? Bángkhonú yutung yobchen; átth ánáó vobchen, hálé má shiját ringtivin? Kyólang Dumig Lámá, hálam sálam má-ní, hálam sálam mání, gyálbóú Dumig Lámá: gyálbóú Dumig Lámá Kanshyákch thonch Lámá.

Translation.

Dumig Lámá proceeded from Gangyul to Kánam. In the upper part of the village is a place called Santan. There dwell a pair of beautiful maidens of rosy complexion. O beautiful maidens, please prepare food for me.

Oh! they do not even favour me with a glance, then what

hope is there of a reception.

O Dumig Lámá, don't sound your pony's little bells, You are not worthy of these minister's daughters. Tell me why not? Is not a stirrup always under the

Stirrup, which costs eight annas, is worthy of the feet. I. I the Rájá's Dumig Lámá, am not an ordinary Lámá, For, I have learnt the holy book called Kanshyakch by heart.

LOCHÁ LÁMÁ'S SONG.

The following song was composed in 1897, when the Rimbóchhé Lochá Lámá was invited by the late Tíká Raghunáth Singh, C.I.E., of Basháhr, from Tássílumbó, which is about three marches this side of Lhássá, to consecrate the Buddhist temple called Dumgyur at Rámpúr. Lochá Lámá has a monastery at Kánam 6 called the Locháu-lábrang. He stayed at Rámpúr more than a year and was respected by all the Kanawar people. Kanawar is his native land, and he is said to be an incarnate Lámá.

> Thochálo shong tá, sárpá yúne zargyos, Mí tá lí loshó, nú hátú caháyang? Nú chháyang chháyang, Rimbóchheú chháyang, Shong shongi bunmá, khoná Rámpúrá, Khoná Rámpúrá, Tíká Sáhibú ampí, Tíká Sáhibas loshid, búchayíňyáň Rimbóchhé, Kí Rámpúr toshíyíň, gomfá búnáté, Lochá Lámás lótash, gurú jiú wáng máemá, Gurú jiú wáng máemá, kí Rámpúr tóshiyin

² Kanshyákch is a Tibetan scripture of the Buddhist.

8 A title of the Tibetan Lámás. ⁴ A place in Tibet.

⁵ The capital of Tibet.

¹ Gyálchhá or Gyálshá is a term for Bashahr territory, used by the Tibetans, as well as by the Kanawar people.

⁸ A village in Shúwá parganá.

Kí Rámpúr tóshrayiň, gomfá búnáte, Gomfá búnáté, úshángú kárkhánang.

Translation.

From the upper country (Tibet) hath arisen a new sun. All men are saying, "Whose light is this?"

This is the light of the glory of the Rimbochhé Lámá, by

This is the light of the glory of the Rimbochhé Lámá, by name Lochá Lámá.

Coming down and ever down, he arrives at Rampur,

Before the Tiká Sáhib,

Who asked, "Welcome holy Lochá Lámá, art thou arrived?

Be pleased to stay in Rámpúr: we will make a monastery for thee here."

And when Lochá Lámá replied that he had no order from his Spiritual Father to remain there for ever,

The Tika said, "Thou mayest live at Rampur as long as it pleases thee,

We will build a temple, Like that of Lhássá."

The following song in the Shumchho dialect is sung in the Shuwá parganá of Kanáwar:—

Toling shong baná yungzá, hanzárú shekhí. Hanzárú shekhí, pále má ech také, Pále má ech také, ju Kaljugo dyáro. Báiyár cheí zámmig, Khártá báyú den, Báiyár zámmig beró, í ruzá mémé, Ruzá memepang lonmig, kí tí kán bírayíň. Kí tí kánmig bírayíň, lum fárú shyá kétak, Lum tárú shyá má yák, tí kán lí má bíg, Tí kán lí má bíg, gu ruzá mémé, Tí kánmig má bímá, shing kánmig bírayíň, Shing kánmig bímá, poltung shyá kétak. Shing kánmig má bíg, poltung shyá lí má yák, Zunmig-shyá saňgí, nyotang Makáláú chhángá. Nyotang Makáláu chhángú, námang thú dúgyos? Námang tá dúgyo, Chanú rang Zabán, Chanú rang Zabán, í ámáú chhángá, Yá zunmigshyá saňgí, nú Shumchhó gítang. Nú Shumchhó gítang, kí ring chályá rayíň, Kí ring chályá rayíň, gunchhá Márkaňdé. Gunchhá Márkaňdé, kí shong chályá rayíň.

Translation.

This year brotherhood was entered into with one . Who is very proud, and has no money at hand,

In these days of the iron age,

All the friends gathered at the water-pool of Khártá.1

At the time of the friendly gathering, there is an old man, the grandfather.

Tell the grandfather to go and fetch water:

He will be given the best of the meat.

The old man replied, "I'll not go to fetch water, nor do I want meat,

For I am old and a grandfather."

"If you will not go and bring the water, then go and fetch fuel,

I'll give you some more."

"I won't go, nor do I care for meat."

There are two dear friends, the sons of Makálá?:

What are their names?

They are Chanú and Zabán,

The sons of one mother and father.

Oh dear friends, carry this Shumchhó 8 song

Into the upper country,

And in winter,

Down to Márkaňde (in Biláspúr State).

THE SONG OF CHHET RAM.

The subject of the following song, which is said to be an old one, is the adoption of a man (by name Chheú Rám) by his father-in-law. Chheú Rám repents and praises his brother Palsukh Rám, who is living happily at home.

Hed chen li bútash, báiyár muldung má bush, Báiyár chéí-nu kaňsang, íjap chílim tólyáyíň, Íjap chílim tólyáyíň, dam tamákú tungté. Hed chen-nú birtí, Chheú Rámú zabán, Chhesmí dácho saňsár, chhwáng mí dácho bígyos. Chhwáng mí dácho bígyos, Yulchhung bandéro. Chheú Rámas lótash, áng karam kócháng, Ang karam kócháng, áng bágin kócháng. Bágin loshímá, Palsukh Rámú bágin, Gúrá bálang ípang, jigich urchhú ampí.

Translation.

"All others will pay me a visit, but never the dear willow tree!

Oh my youngest brother, take up the pipe, And we will have a smoke."

A pool in Shumchhó ghorí.

² Makálá, a sept of Kanets found in Pilo.

Shumchho, the dialect of three villages Kánam, Lábrang and Pílo.

Every one else's treasure is equal to the word of Chheú Rám,

For, in this world, a bride is brought home by her husband. But never the husband by his wife, as in Spilo 1 village.

Chheú Rám said, "My fate is a bad one,

And my luck is also too bad,

But lucky is the lot of my brother Palsukh Rám,

Who has nine hundred cattle, at a place near the small grain-box.

MIDŇUP CHHERING'S SONG.

Sántan teteú fintan, áng chá Miňdup Chhéring, Ang chá Miňdup Chhéring, bánthinú lálchú thá láyíň, Bánthinú lálchú thá láyíň, bánthinas gar-ban mátolyá. Ulpaú bátang roňchmá, aulisú chímet fírayíň, Aulisú chímet ken-nang, páňdup-dup-shyá nang, Páňdup-dup shyá nang, kirshání nító, Kirshání nímá, gar-ban chályátó. Aulis táng jítas, prálab íshid má-ech. Miňdup Chheringas lotash, áng tégshyá báwá, Āng tég-shyá báwá, nú thu bátang ringtoyíň, Nú thu bátang ringtoyíň, ide parmí gáňdú, chúlí bínyáté.

Translation.

The message of grandfather Sántan 2 is:

"O my dear Mindup Chhering, don't be hankering after a pretty woman,

Because beautiful maidens are unfit to carry homely duties. If you hearken to our advice, take a poor man's girl, Of dark black complexion.

If you will have such a wife, the cultivation will prosper, And by the prosperity of the land, the business of your home will go right.

Riches and poverty depend on chance."

Mindup Chhering replied: "O my grandfather,

Why do you say so ?

Some damsels are no good, so we must pick them out like apricots!"

TRE SONG OF MINDUP AND ZABÁN PATÍ.

Sáňkú yá Barjé, b<u>ai</u>rang tá dwáyiň-yáň, B<u>ai</u>rang tá dwáyiň-yáň, yungzú shapthang búto,

A forest near Spilo, a village in Shúwá parganá.
 Sántan was grandfather of Mindup Chhering.

⁸ Mindup Chhering lives at Pilo or Spilo, village in Shuwa pargana, Shumchho ghori.

Yungzé yá yungzé, kí kumó járayíň,
Ringzé yá ringzé, gu khrá khrá tachá.
Aláchár aláchár, Sántanú chháng Miňdup,
Dak shong shongí bímá, khoná chú Rámpúrá,
Khoná chú Rámpúrá, bairang bazáró,
Yá bhagwán thákur, jé hálá pú-she?
Jé hálá pú-she? Ámá máe shokrang.
Gu títhang bítak, Jwálámukhí títhang,
Jwálámukhí títhang, má tángmig tángshid.
Tío díwang zudó, báyú mé baro,
Rágo mé báskyáng, tío mé baro.
Yungzé yá yungzé, parmí hát dúgyo?
Parmí tá lonmá, Pánchárasú chimet,
Pánchárasú chimetú, námang thú dúgyos?
Námang tá lonmá, Zabán Pati báňthin.

Translation.

O Sáňkú Barjé, just go out and look, I hear my adopted brother's voice. O my brother, come in, come and take a seat. O my dear sister, 'tis getting late for me. I've no time, said Mindup, the son of Santan, Then going down and ever down, he reached the level land of Rámpúr, And stayed outside the town: "O my God, how did you arrive here? You who have no mother or father, and are an orphan?" "I have to go to the sacred place, called Jwálámukhí. O marvel! I have seen what I never saw before! There's a lamp in the water! Besides the fire in the rock, there is fire in the water! O dear brother, who is your wife? My wife is the daughter of Pán-cháras.2 What's her name? Her name is Zabán Patí, the beautiful.

The following song is on parting:—

Panchó báiyár zom-mig, yálú rátingó, yá-lú rá-tingó, zom-migú bérang brálmig; Zommigú bérang brálmig báskyang, má-zommig také; má-zommig také, omchú bérango dená. Játá bérangó, brálim má chál chál, tul-tulí mig-tí, mig-tí twán má gyá, gu haches butak, dái golu nyumchá.

l Barjí, a sept of Kanets found in Lippá village.

2 Pán is the Kanáwar name for Pánowi village, and châras means the head-man of a village. So pán-cháras means the head-man of Pánowi, a village in Thárábis parganá.

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Bimigú bérangó, í gomfá nesh hás gomfá ló. Hás gomfáú nyumchá, gom jájá bíggyos. Gom jámig má hánmá, da mor-chháng má nársh, gom jámig má hánmá, da chhesmí má nársh.

Translation.

During the short nights, friends and others assemble together.

There is parting after meeting with friends; 'Twere better not to meet in the first place,

Than to be tortured by parting.

They are unwilling to part,

She rains down tears. You ought not to weep dear,

I'll come soon again, after ten weeks.

At the time of departure, one step is forward and another backward.

After the next step, he goes away patiently, saying:—
"One who has no patience is not deemed the son of a brave man,"

She, who does not have the patience, is never esteemed as the damsel of a brave mother.

The following song is about Negí Anzin Dás of Pwárí, a village in Tukpá parganá, who fell in love with a maid named Hírá Maní of Thángí, a village in parganá Tukpá.

Yá panchó báyár, parmí tángmig bíté. Kin báho parmí hát tó? Ang báho parmí toá; koe Pánasá chhechá, koe Thánasá chhechá. Thangreú chímet, Hírá Maní bánthin. Hírá Maní bánthin, námana o-chá-shé: námang ocháshé, dhálang ocháshé. Anzin Dásas lótash, "áng námangó tóshi-yiň," Hírá Manis lótash, kin námangó má-tosh; kin páló lámas, áng órang ghátes. orang ghátes tonmá, orangú gom já ra viň; áng tángshis parmí, zguí gom güs játak zguí gom güs játak, í gom kí járayiň. Yá zunmíg saňgí, bíte bíte ringtoviň, kin kimó parmí, kimó káshis parmí, áng káshis mání, áteú káshis parmí, áng báho má-buch. Ateú káshis tonmá. da lí parmí nárshó, da lí parmi nárshmá. jutí mul mul kétak, stákuch mul mul kétak.

Translation.

O all you friends, let us go to search for a wife. Who is your dear maiden? My hearty maiden is

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Either of Pángí or of Thángí village. The daughter of the Thangri sept, by name Hirá Mani, the pretty maid. Her name is very pleasing to my ears. I may be seech her. Anzin Dás said: "You may live in my name." Hírá Maní² replied: "I won't remain in your name; Because you are a rich man, and I a poor man's daughter. You may have to be patient for only one thing, Whereas I shall have to be patient for a good many things, You may have to be patient for only one thing. O my dear friend, you promise to take in, But you have another wife at home, She is not brought by me, but by my elder brother, She is not welcome to me, If not welcome to you, she is reckoned as a wife of yours, If so, then I'll cut off her braid, or cut off her nose.

A LOVE-SONG IN THE SHUM-CHHO DIALECT.

Yálú-chú jamó, shib-jiú bátang hálá?
Shibjiú bátang hálá? Chulí shó má shó?
Má-shó-má báskyáng, dáshó tólú gosrang.
Ulpaú zamá páulí, áshá láí khuchí;
ashá lá-ú má-lá-u, chángé má khéré.
Gánthang tiú táré. Shibjiú lagyátí parmí,
sanish barshang shuňgré. Hunzúr thuráré,
basílá gyunmá, sháhúkárú basílá,
zulum chhebé má; zulum ringí-tonnang,
foní chámátté. Tahsilú pítang fotté.

Translation.

O you rosy nun, how are your private affairs?

Are the apricots ripe or not?

Instead of ripening they are fallen down on the ground.

There are many who long for our beauty;

But we'll keep it for the sake of virtue.

Those who want salvation, must ring bells and do Divine Service,

I'll wait for twelve years to fulfil my desire, and will try

again and again,

If there will be the want of help, there's the rich man to help,8

¹ Anzin Dás is an inhabitant of Pwári village in Inner Tukpá parganá. His sept is Fanyán.

² Hírá Maní, daughter of a zamindár of Thángi, a village in Inner Tukpá parganá. Her parents' sept is Thangrú.
³ The rich man to help is Sanam Gurú Shyáltú by a sept of Lippá village in Shúwá parganá.

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There is no oppression, if any one will do it,¹
I'll beat him with shoes, and will break the door of the Tahsil (for justice).

• The following is a song showing Chhasu maiden's love for a minister's son, and her disappointment:—

Chhasú bánthin lotash, ámá vá ámá. Gü Tikrang bitak, póshák dhóyámó. Póshúk dhóyátak, gü játrang bítak, Gü játrang bítak, Grosnam thánang-chó. Dak shong shongi bimá, Shotúu kimo den, Ang kansung náné, Gyále bánthiní. Náné yá náné, gü játrang bítak, Grosnam deshángó, nílú ú kérayíň, Nílú ú kerayíň chhatróling kérayíň, Lágé tí thápchad, póshák khó-yá-tó. Dak nesh neshí bímá, Kot dhárangú den, Báiyár chéi lóshó, " nú hátú chhesmí?" Núgo tá lonná, Jwálá Négiú chhesmí, Chhasú bánthiní, Bórasú chímet, Bórasú chímet, Shúwáng bistú bánjí. Chhasuú manang cháltó, bistú chháng chumtak, Kínú má sinjyátó, nú té'g miú chháng, Chhasuú manang suňchtó, bistú tangó yunmig, Kinú má sinjyátó, bistú tangó yunmig.

Translation.

The pretty maid Chasú ² said: "O mother, O mother, I'll go to Tikrang ⁸ to wash my clothes.

Because I have to go to the dancing fair,
In the court-yard of Shungrá village."

Then going down and ever down, she arrived at Shotú's house,
Where there was her younger aunt by name Gyálé.
O dear aunt, I'll go out to dance,
In Grosnam ⁴ village, please give me a blue flower,
As well as an umbrella.

For, if it rains, my dress will be spoiled.
Then she went out straight to the ridge called Kót, ⁵
All persons said: "Whose comrade is she?"

¹ If any one will oppress us then we'll beat him with shoes, and will go to the Tahsil of Chini for justice.

This song is also in Shum-chho dialect.

² Chhasú, maiden of Barí village in Thárábís parganá, Rámpúr
Tabeil

Tikrang, a water-pool near Barí village.
 Grosnam is another name of Shungrá village in Thárábis parganá.

Rampúr Tabsil.

⁵ Kót is the name of a rídge near Shuňgrá or Grosnam village in Thárábís parganá, Rámpúr Tabsil.

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Some of them replied that she is the darling of Jwálá Negí,¹ and

The daughter of Boras sept,2 by name Chhasú,

And her maternal uncle is the minister of Shuwa pargans. Chhasu thinks in her mind, to choose the minister's son (Jwala).

But she is not worthy of the great man's son.

She has a mind to walk over the verandah of the minister (Jwálá Negí),

But she is not so fortunate as to walk over the verandah.

DEBÁ AND NING DOL'S SONG.

The following song is about Débá of Pú, who fell in love with a damsel Ning Dól by name, whom he abducted and took to his home, but was afterwards obliged to pay Rs. 1000 as compensation for her.

Khinpáú chháng, Débá, kí gotió má-gyoch, hár-márú gom báskyang, hañzárú gom já-gyos. Báhó parmí Ning Dól, bánthin thiná-manná, Sántanú chímet, Ning Dól, ugomá sángá golchháng; khi-khi má-grik-shak, táng tángi má-grik-shak. Báho-chú parmí, ijap khím gyáshak. Hun bímig háché, shong Darbár jám-mig; Shong Darbáró májangó, thü dumsí lánte?

Translation.

O you son of Khinpá, Debá by name, you are not less in any way.

Besides trouble in securing Ning Dol, you've to pay a thousand rupees for her sake.

How wonderfully beautiful is your wife Ning Pol,

The daughter of Santan*: her face of rosy complexion resembles the full moon.

I can never be satisfied with gazing at it.
O dear wife, I want to see you once more.

Now we've to go down to the court at Rámpúr.

On arriving there, I can't say how the case will be decided?

Santan is the name of Ning Dol's father.

Jwálá Negi is the name of Lachhmi Dás Negi's son in Shungrá village. His sept is Tyúras.

Bóres is a sept of kanets living in Barí village.
8 Khinpá is a sept of kanets living in Poo or Spoo village in Shúwá parganá.

Bábú Bhúp Singh and Sembát's Song.

The following is a song of Bábú Bhúp Singh of the Forest Department, who fell in love with a woman of the Lippá village named Sembát, whom he left when transferred from Basháhr Division, and took all the ornaments from her; she gave them back saying that they are worth of her two fields' price.

Yochálo den tá, Bhúp Singhá Bábú, Bhúp Singh Bábú lotash, májang Jangrámo, 1 májang Jangrámo, "ijap Lippá bí-tak." Dakk nesh-neshí bímá, markhoná Lippá, mánechú dená, "Lippá Mukhiyá hám tan?" Deró hám kétayiň? Deró tá kétak Barjíú dwáré. Barjíú morabo kumo; Barjíú nyotang chimet; Barjíú nyotang chímet, Sembát dáng Naryáng; bánthin tá Naryáng, báhó tá Sembát. Bhúp Singh Bábú lotash, chhatkang zálmig bítak; chhatkang zálmig berang, yútung Sembát táng-gyos; yútung Sembát táng táng, Thákur zálmig boshi-gyos. Toling Chángmáng sántang, Sembátú gare dakhat. Omstá také Barjíú chímet, hun tá háchis tarzíú chímet. Bhúp Singh Bábú kóchyáng, marjyád má lán-gyos; marjyád má lán lán, gudo dhágulo kholyá-gyos. Sembátas dakk lóshid, dhágulo fimú fírayin, dhágulo fímá fírayiň, shum dóriú mólang; dhúgulo hé lí shetak, Sembátú prálab ton-má.

Translation.

From down country came a Bábú, Bhúp Singh by name, who, in the middle of the Jángí village, said,

"I'll go first to Lippá village."

Then going straight up, he arrived at the level lands of Lippá,

Near the Máne cairn, and said: "Where's the mate or mukhiyá?

Where am I to put up?" "There in the house of Barjí, Near the arch of the house," replied mukhiyá.

Barji has two daughters named Sembát and Naryáng.

Sembát and Naryáng are both very pretty.

Bhúp Singh Bábú said, "Let us go and see the temple up in the house."

When going up to the temple, he saw Barji's daughter, Sembat.

Seeing her he forgot to look at the temple.

This year, near the court-yard of the temple of Changmang at the fair of Changmang, rumours of their friendship spread.

Jangrám is the name of a ghori in Shúwá parganá.

Sembát was first Barjí's daughter, but now she is become a groom's girl.

Bábu Bhúp Singh is not a good man, because he did not keep his promise;

He takes away her ornaments.

Sembat then said, "You may have the ornaments back, They are worth my two fields' price,

If I'll have good fortune, I can get good many ornaments."

THE SONG OF TANZIN DARZE OF GANGYUL IN THE UPPER KANAWAR VALLEY.

Kin deskí beté, Máthasú chháng Tánzin, háchis háchis fáyuló, áng parmí táng-tó-yiň; parmiú íché ló-rayiň, í tenfát fí-rayiň. Parmiú íché lórayiň, shong tong tong kárayiň. Ráí dyáró májang, kátyáró Lawíó, parmis tá lótash, sukh-sambál tó-yiň yáň? Báho-chú parmí, khushí-shé rází, kánang rang ú-rang, khákang rang gítang. Yá zunmig saňgí, deró hám chumté? Deró tá chumté, májang bazáró, májang bazáró, piplú botangú yutung. Yá zunmig saňgí, payiň shélí bí-té, payiň shélí bíté, bázár tamáshó tángté.

Translation.

"O you son of Máthas, by name Tánzin, who are like a brother,

Should you happen to go to our native land and see my wife.

Please give her my well wishes, and hand over to her this present as a token of love.

And bring her down to Rampur for the winter fair of Lawi."

After a week, she arrived at the fair of Rámpúr Lawí. The wife said: "Are you quite well, my dear?" (Tánzin replied): "Yes, my dear, I am quite well, Having flowers on the ears and song in the tongue." The wife inquired: "O my dear, where are we to put up?"

¹ This song is in Gangyul dialect.
² Máthas is a sept of *Kanets* living in several villages of Shúwá and Tukpá parganás. It is also an official post of a village deity.

⁸ Tánzin Darze is the son of Ganguyl Máthas.

 In mourning they never wear a flower on the ears and do not sing a song. To wear a flower and to sing a song are the signs of happiness.

Tánzin answered: "In the centre of the town, Beneath the large tree of Pípal" (a species of fig). "O my dear husband, let us go out for a walk, "As well as to see the pastime of the bázáár."

Khálchú Lámá's Song.

The following song is about Khálchú Lámá and Yáng Patí, who was abducted by the Lámá. Khálchú Lámá's parents paid the compensation due for Yáng Patí.

Yáng bánthnas lotash, Khálchu Lámá hám tan? Khálchu Lámá hám tan? omchú bátang hálá? Khálchu Lámás lotash, "áng tá bolás mání, áng tá bolás mání, hár-már rang bátang; hár-már rang bátang, Gyolangú shum rá rupyá. Man-ban lóshímá, Khálchu Lámáú man-ban, Khálchu Lámáú man-ban, hár-már sántyágyos.

Translation.

Yáng Patí, the pretty maid, said: "Where is Khálchú Lámá? What about the promise made before?" Khálchú Lámá replied, "'Tis not in my power, To take away another man's wife, And pay Rs. 300 to Gyólang." | Khálchú Lámá's parents are praiseworthy, For they settled the matter by paying off the compensation of love (Rs. 300) for Yáng Patí.

THE SONG OF BUTICH.

The following song is about a remarkable dame of Jángí, a village in Shúwá parganá, Chíní Tahsíl, Butich by name.

Shyárá láekhu tashá, yutung Khádurá chhángá, yutung Khádurá chhángá, Hwáňyyál Chhering báyár. Chías láekhu tashá, Jáňgich Butich bánthin, Jáňgich Butich bánthin, Jáňgich Butich bánthin, minchhat-láí chias. Hwáňgyál Chheingá tenfát, thu-chú ring-chú chádar, thu-chú ring-chú chádar, Butich bánthinú gudó. Butich bánthinú tenfát, Ladák-chulíú khalap, Ladák-chulíú khalap, Hwáňgyál Chheringu gudo. Anenú man-banas lótash, bairang parmí shothyáyiň, bairang parmí shothyámá gudó dháguló kétak; gudó dháguló báskyáng, kánango doltú kétak.

l Gyólang is a sept of Kanets living in Pilo or Spilo, a village in Shúwá pargana. And it also means a lúmá who leads a celibate life.

Hwảngyál Chhering lótash, nú bátang gũ má-hánk, nú bátang gũ má-hánk, zabán-chhushid narchháng, zabán-chhushid narchháng, dagoú sharáp bútó; paisá págshis rándiú, dagoú bímá bim sheyin, dagoú bímá bím-she-yin, dagoú sharáp má buch.

Translation.

Khádurá Negí's son, by name Hwáňgyál Chhering. Of Khádurá i village under Jángí, is a handsome youth. And so is the worthy maiden of Jangi village, By name Butich, a remarkable maid. A Tibetan blanket, as a token from Hwangyal Chhering. Is in the hand of the fair pretty Butich. And a bit of apricot from Laóákh, as a present From Butich, is in Hwangyal Chhering's hand. His parents said: "Put away the out-land woman. If you turn her out, we'll give you a pair of bracelets, And gold earrings for your ears besides." Hwangyal Chhering replied, "No, no, I can't do it, For I have faithfully pledged my word to her, And she will curse me. Let my other wife go away, if she go away. There is no fear of a curse from her, as she has been paid for."

Maní and Pati's Song.

The following song relates to the two damsels of Jángí village named Maní and Patí, who fell in love with a youth named Mishpon Zabán Dás of the same village.

Maní rang Patí, yor-chandó salak, yor chandó salako, Zabánú chám pánó. Zabánú tukrí jáó, foí rampring dú-gyo; foí rampring dú-gyo; tángmig má-ech yúné. Zabán báyáras lotush, Maní Patí hám tan? áng dang shong já-rayiň, khariú má-zun budó, khariú má-zun budo, í morál tá shéra-yiň; í morál tá shé-ra-yiň, manangó lagyátí morál. Morálú nyum dotári bájó, dotárí nyum khanjari bájo. Mishpan Zabán báyár, parmí duyiň yá má-duyiň f Bátang sachí gyáshó, áng tá parmí toá, Pángí Pángtu chímet, Gyálchhan Patí bánthin.

Translation.

There below the road, Mani and Pati are spinning the wool,

Khádurá is the name of a village under Jáňgí, in Shúwá parganá.
 Jáňgí is a large village in Shúwá parganá.

Belonging to Jabán Dás Mishpon. And there the latter is eating a bit of bread, And wasting his time. When it became dark, The friendly Zabán Dás said: "Where are Mani and Pati! O Maní and Patí, come down to me, I am very uneasy about you.''

Please sing a song,

A song that may be an attractive one.

With the song the flute and tambourine are also played. "O you friendly Zabán Dás Mishpon, are you married or not?"

"I must tell the truth, yes, I have a wife,

The daughter of Pangtú 2 Negí of Pangí 8 village, beautiful Gyalchhan Pati."4

The following song was composed in Gangyul, when Lámá Rasbír of Rópá village enticed away the wife of Jwálam of Brélé, a village near Chíní.

> Tholpáú chháng Rasbír, hár-márú góm jágyos, hár-már dáng hár-már, thinamanná hár-már, táwá tá má-tash, giró báňkhonas yunmig. Bánkhonas yunó Gangyuló; Chhering Patí bánthin. Májang (yá kháshyá, páo khán-do-má. Thármiú chháng, Jwálam, mahárájú, ampí, nish gud joryáó, jilyújí maháráj, Thủ ringtoyin hushiár? Jwálam báyár lótash, Tholpáú chháng hám tan? Ang paisá krá, áng batwá krá, áng paisá shen-mó.

Translation.

Tholpá's son, named Rasbír, is suffering much From his wonderful feat in abducting another man's wife. "There is no pony here, so you'll have, dear, to go on foot."

The beautiful damsel, Chhering Patí, went on foot towards Gangyul.

She has a small black mark on her forehead, otherwise she would closely resemble the Celestial Nymphs.

Thármí's 6 son, Jwálam by name, joining his hands before the Rájá, requested,

¹ Mishpon is a sept of Kanets living in Jáňgí village in Shúwá parganá.

² Páňgtú is a sept of Kanets living in Páňgí village in Shúwá parganá.

 ⁸ Pángí is a large village in Shúwá parganá.
 4 Gyálchhan Patí is the name of Zabán Das' wife.
 5 Chhering Patí is the second wife of Rasbir Tholpá Lámá.

⁶ Thármí is a sept of Kanets residing in Tailang and Brélé, villages of Shuwa parganá.

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"O victorious king, where's Tholpá's son?"

"What do you say, O clever man?" Jwalam replied,

"Where's Tholpa's son? Please order him to pay me the marriage expenses,

I must fill my money bag with the money."

A LOVE SONG.

NEGÍ SANAM DÁS' SONG.

The following song has lately been composed:— Thochálo shong tá, Gangyúlo dekhrá chá, Gangyúlo dekhrá chá, hát dám míú chhánaá? Hát đám míú má lon, Lippá Shyáltú chhángá. Lippá Shyáltú chhángá, Sanam Dás báiyár. Dak shong shongi bimá, Sholdang gárang cho. Sholdang gárang cho, Baré Zintú zamo, Sanam Dásas lotash, yá Baré Zintú zamo, Yá Baré Zintú zamo, nú chhesmiú bólvá-víň. Hátú lo jái, hátú lo bánjí? Hátú lo má lon, Tyúrasú jái Jogtuú bánjí, Jogtúú bánji, Nílá Patí bánthin, Zintú zamos lotash, jú aldo kámchik, Ang bólás tá má-ní, hár márú bátang, Sanam Dásas lotash, paisás bólyátak, Paisás bólyátak, kí dokhá thá gyá yíň, Dak shong shongi bimá, Chórá baňdero, Chórá bandero, Sanam Dásas lotash, Ang nyumsí thá jáň-yíň, gu hunái má fíchak, Gu hunái má fíchak, ring bímig béro fíchak, Paltyatá buchá, Nílá Patí bánthin. Sanam Dás Negi, khoná Rámpurá, Yúlánú chhángas lotash, áng morchháng thú fíyos? Sanam Dásas lotash, kin paisá kí chumrayíň, Yúlánú chhángas lotash, paisáu goyá áng má-ech, Paisáu goyá áng má-ech, morchhángú goyá áng to, Tyúrasú chhángú izzat, ní-rá rúpayá, Ní-rá rúpa-yá, nish rángú bécháng.

Translation.

A youth of Gangyul ¹ came down from the upper country. Whose son is he?
Don't ask whose! He is Sanam Dás,
A worthy son of the Shyáltú ² family of Lippá.
Coming down and down, he arrives at Sholdang stream,

Gangyul is the name of a ghori in upper Kanawar.

² Syáltú is a sept of Kanets in Lippá, a village of Shúwá parganá.

Where lives a nun, Zintú 1 zamo of Barí 2 village.

Sanam Dás said: "O Zintú zamo,

Will you talk with that pretty girl?

Whose daughter is she, and where is her mother's brother?'

"Don't ask whose! She is a girl of the Tyuras family,

Jogtú is her maternal uncle,

And her name is Nílá Patí, the beautiful damsel''-

'Said Zintú, the nun of Barí: "'Tis a delicate matter not in my power."

Sanam Dás replied, that he would remove all difficulties

by the aid of money,

And that she should not be afraid about the maid.

Then coming down to the forest of Chorá,

Sanam Dás said,

"Don't follow me, my dear, I will not take you with me now,

But will take you with me on my way back home."

The fair maid Nílá Patí turned back,

And Negí Sanam Dás arrived at Rámpúr.

The son of Yúlán said: "Why did you abdust my fair and lawful wife?"

Sanam Dás replied: "Take your marriage expenses, that's all you'll get!"

Yúlán's son replied: "I've no desire for money,

But my desire is for my darling."

The honour of the Tyuras family was held to be worth Rs. 200.

The price of two ponies!

THE SONG OF PALT RAM BORES OF LIPPA.

The following song is in the Shumchho dialect, which differs somewhat from Manthanang, the language of Kanawar.

Nápá jis tures, Boresú barjí yungze, Boresú barjí yungze, Pálú Rám Bores, Pálú Rám bígyos, krigarú pántháng cho, Krigarú pánthang cho, yá krigarú chimet, Yá krigarú chimet, ijap shárshim gyáto, Ijap shárshim gyáto, palbar gofná lánte,

Tyúras is a sept of Kanets in Shúngrá, a village of Thárábís parganá.
 Pálú Rám is a man of respectable family in Lippá, a village in

Paiu Ram is a man of respectable family in Lippa, a village Shúwá parganá.
 Bores, a sept of Kanets in Lippá.

¹ Zintú is a sept of Kanets in Barí, a village of Thárábis parganá.

² Barí is a village in Thárábís parganá
⁸ Yúlán is a sept of Kanets in Nátpá, a village of Thárábís parganá, and perhaps immigrants from Yúlá, and so called Yúlán.

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Adang rátingo gofná, kí hátí toyáň?
Ning tálí toyáň, Pálú Rám Bores,
Pálú Rámas rángyos, láye ngá rupayá,
Láye ngá rupayá, rátingú í doluk,
Pálú Rám Bores, omchú lí minchhat,
Omchú lí minchhat, gyábtingchú lí dákat,
Yá pancho báiyár, bekáidá ring toyíň,
Bekáidá ringmá, dúwáre tahsíl.

Translation.

There comes the second (middle) son of Bores!
By name Pálú Rám Bores.
Pálú Rám went to the carpenter's house and said:—
"O you workman's damsel, get up for a little while!
We will sing a song."
"Who are you, to bid me sing a song at midnight?"
"I am Pálú Rám Bores, a son of the Bores family."
Pálú Rám gave five rupees for a day,
And one sheep for a night.
His family is famous from old for its generosity,
And well known at present too!
O friends, you do not say rightly!
If we are not right,
Then the Tashíl door at Chíní is always open.

The Song of Loktas Negi of Kánam, named Zindup Darze or Zindup Rám Loktas, the eldest son of Hírá Dás Loktas, a very wealthy man in Kanáwar.

The following song is in the Shumchho dialect:—
Yá pancho báiyár, toshimig Yulchhung¹ dám dú,
Khariú mázun budo, khariú mázun bunmá,
Sukhzankras já-ra-yíň, shirná hirim budá,
Hirim tá má bunmá, dálang má rú-lyás.
Zindup Darze bígyos, Shílíú² multhango den,
Shílíú multhango den, shúshúrí bájo,
Shúshúriú kumo, byorá thú dúgyos?
Byorá tá lonmá, kan sang kanichú prál lon,
Sherkhan táshpá táshgyos? Kátyáng shum damyá,
Thi namanná dúgyo, má zam nang gúzam,
Shumchho chhángá zámgyo, Shumchho chhángá májang,
Baktábarú betá, Zindup Darze báiyár,
Multhangú den thuredo, yen káchyáng khyágyos,
Yen káchyáng khyámá, sháhukárpo gurbái.

² Shílí, a sept of Kanets living in Kánam village.

¹ Yulchhung is another name of Spilo or Pilo, a village in Shumchho

Translation.

"O all you friends, 'tis better to live in Pilo,

But I feel much unhappiness, "—"If you feel unhappiness, Then come up in safety, the wind is blowing gently.

If the air does not blow, the boughs of the trees will not shake."

Zindup Darze went to Shilis' house,

And there he plays his pipe.

What is the theme he sings to his pipe?

To his pipe he is singing his young friend's message:—
"When will the Sherkhan fair! at Kánam take place?"

"On the 3rd of Kátik."

What a wondrous and crowded gathering it is!

All the youth of Shumchho ghori assembles there, and among the Shumchho youths,

The rich man's son Zindup Darze is running here and

Looking down from the verandah of the house, He finds his father's adopted brother there.

The Story of Rájá Nal and his queen Damayantí in the Kanáwar language.²

I gyálbo Nal rang gyálmo Durmandí takesh. Som gyálboú shúshim bímigú bero gyálmó cháto toshis tatash. Toshishí kháú láno tatash. I melingú den chá puno tash, áe melingú den nyorá punotash; í melingú den rot lánotash, áe melingú den ráll pádotash. Gyálbo Nal shúshim bíbí pyá chumtatash. Pyáú námang thú dú? Námang tá chyútí dú. Chum chum cháto káshid dush. Gyálbos anú gyálmopang loshid, yá Durmandí, kháú lán lán jupang bháduo sheyíň, bháduo she-she melingú den páí, melingú shing sheyíň; shing she-she khuáchim sheyíň. Dak gyálbo he lí airango bíshid. I pántig káshid, da lí anú nárú khuáchmo ránshid. Kháú zázá gyálbos shelí bíshid. Gyálmos kimú kámang lánshid. Sanish barshang-stang hodeí jángalo toshishid. Dak kimo bíbí anú báyá rang júwá lán-lán cheí ráj pát gyál-gyál he lí anú deshángo dám ráj lánshid.

Translation.

There was once a king Nal by name, and his queen was called Durmandí (Damayantí). The exiled king went in the morning to bathe, and the queen stayed at home in the wood. She began to cook for the king. In the four stoves she cooked tea, flesh, bread and rice. The king caught a bird while

² From Mahábhárat and Nalodaya.

¹ Sherkhan, the fair that takes place in Kánam on the 3rd of Kátik.

bathing. What is its name? It is a blackbird. Having caught it he carried it to his dwelling, and said to his queen. O Durmandí, be pleased to cook it in a vessel, and put it on the fire, so that it may be well cooked. Again the king went out shooting, and got a pheasant and gave it also to his wife to cook. Having taken food the king went out for a walk, while the queen remained at home to do the work of the house. After living for twelve years in the forest in this manner, he returned home, and regained his kingdom from his brother, whom he worsted at play, and began to rule as before.

LOVE SONG.

The song of Sautingú l Dámbar (also called Chhákoling Dámbar), the deity of Lábrang village, and his grokch or diňwáň, who was also called Chhákoling Dámbar, and who fell in love with a damsel, but was forbidden by his parents to marry, and who went on a trip with his beloved by the deotá's order.

Sautingú Dámbar bígyos, Thongling² gomfáo, Thongling gomfá kumo, shum dyárí beshí, Bátangú ángláng má toyi, shum dyárí damyá, Man-banú jabák túre, ronú lo gánthum. Parmio jabák báskyáng, man-banú jabák túre, Sautingú Dámbar lotash, Puánú³ chháng hám tash? Ijap kimo bírayíň, nyotang táwá kánachí, Nyotang táwá kánachí, kyo sháng dáng gonmá. Kyo sháng dáng gonmá, wárió cháláte, Nesh neshí bímá, Khárchung⁴ dánio den, Khárchung dánio den, sámná sunchyá gyos, Chhákoling Dámbar, shumjap dhálang gyos, Shumjap dhálang gyos, doshang thá lán rayíň, Ijap shelí bítak, háches palthyá tak.

Translation.

Sautingú Dámbar went to the temple of Thongling, Where he stayed three days.

No reply about the matter came in three days,
But he got his parents' reply, which was as hard as a knot of iron.

Instead of his darling's reply, he got his parents' answer. Sautingú Dámbar said then: "Where is Puán's son?"

¹ Santingú Dámbar or Chhákoling Dámbar is the deity of Lábrang, a village in Shúwá parganá. The grokch, in whose body the deity play, is also named Santingú Dámbar or Chhákoling Dámbar.
² In Lábrang.

Puán or Puwán, a sept of Kanets found in Lábrang.
 In Lábrang.

Go home at once, and bring a pair of ponies,
A pony-stallion and a mare,
Then let us be gone."
Going straight down, they reached the ridge of Khárchung,
Where they thought of home and said,
"O Chhákoling deotá, we bow to thee thrice,
Be not angry with us,
We are going on a trip, and will soon return."

A LOVE SONG.

1 Negi Gangá Saháya's Song.

The following song was composed in 1890, when Negí Gangá Sahái was appointed by the late Tíká Raghunáth Singh, C.I.E., to be paṭwárí of Inner Tukpá parganá. There he fell in love with a damsel called Naryum Patí, daughter of Nyokché, Negí of Thángí, a village in Inner Tukpá parganá.

Tíká Sáhibas lótash, áng hushyárí hám tan? Hushyárí tá lonmá, Pángí Pángtu chháng, Pángi Pángtu chhángá, áng paimáshi birayin. Pángtu chhángas lótash, gu Tukpá má bíg, Gu Tukpá má bíg, gu Shúwé bítak. Tíká Sáhibas lótash, áng hukum má roňchis, Ang hukum má roňchis, né hálá ringtan? Dak ring ringí bímá, khonáchú Thángí, Khonáchú Thángí, Nyokché Négíu gore, Nyokchéú jáí, Naryum Patí bánthin. Naryum Patí bánthin, ywáksí dháling gyos, Gangá Saháy munshí, thwáksí jirjyá gyos. Naryum bánthin lótash, gu kin rang bútak, Gangá Saháy lótash, kí áng rang thá jáyín, Ang parmí kócháng, Yúle Shwálú chímet, Kinú tong tong kétó, wárkyó tópás lánchak.

Translation.

Tiká Raghunáth Singh asked, "Where is my clever man?"

The clever man is said to be the son of Pangtu Negí 2 of Pangi village.

"O Pangtu Negi's son, go to my new settlement work as a

patwari," said the Tika Sahib.

"I will not go to Tukpá parganá, but to the Shúwá parganá," declared Gangá Sahái.

Negí Ganga Sahay, a resident of Pangi village in Shuwa pargana, by sept a Pangtu, is now patwari of the Inner Tukpa pargana.
A sept of Kanets found in Pangi, a village in Shuwa pargana.

The Tika Sahib replied, "Do you not hear my order? What do you say?""

Then going up and ever up, he reached the plain of Thángí 1 village,

And in Nyokché 2 Negi's house -Is the daughter of the Negi,

By name Naryum Pati,⁸

And she greeted Gangá Sahái from below.

And Gangá Sahái gave her his salutation from above.

Pretty Naryum Patí said, "I will go with you,"

But Ganga Sahai said :- "No, not so, don't come with me;

Because my wife, a girl of Yúlá village of the Shwál b sept, is not a kind woman:

She will beat you: you must not come with me, but I will take care of you from afar."

A LOVE SONG.

PADAM DASÍ'S SONG.

The following song was composed at the time of the settlement of the Bashahr State by the late Tika Raghunath Singh, C.I.E., in 1889:—

> Toling shónang damyá, nawá naklu káchyá, Hármálche losho, jimí pzimásh láno, Tíká Sáhibú munshi, Lobhá dáng Bríndában, Jimi paimásh láno, Tanam 8 maidáno. Padam Dásí bánthin, thu chhandol mandol, Gáchhyángo zedpug rang, bóringo botal dáng. Padam Dásis losho, Lobhá munshi hám tan? Payíň Gyámbung bíte, Sunam 10 ba-sá-te. Lobhá munshis lodo, gu Gyámbung má-bug, Ang hanzárú garban, áng báho parmí, Ang báho parmí, áng nyótang páji. Bennang bódyadá, Padam dáng Lobhá,

¹ A large village in Inner Tukpá parganá. ² A sept of Kanets found in Thángi, a village in Inner Tukpá

⁸ The name of Nyokché Negi's daughter of Thángí village.

A village in Rajgáoň parganá. ⁶ A sept of Kanets found in Yúlá, a village of Rajgáoň parganá. 6 Padam Dási, daughter of Tapdam Chhering of Taling village, is now the wife of Zór Púr, grokch of Lábrang.
7 Lobhá munchí of Urní village is now a paiwarí of the Outer

Tukpá parganá.

8 The name of a level place near Sunam. ⁹ A village in Gangyul ghori near Sunam. 10 A village in Shuwa pargana.

Padam Dásiú muňdí, Lobhá munshiú gudó, Lobhá munshiú muňdí, Padam Dásiú gudó. Ju chhebó milan dáhí, hás chhebó mílté, Dargáú rájo ampí, Dharam Rájo ampí.

Translation.

In July of this year, a coined news came,

And every one said that a new settlement was to be made, and the land was to be measured.

The Tiká Sáhib's two munshis, named Lobhá and Brindrában,

Began to measure the land at the plain of Tanam, near Sunam.

Pretty Padam Dásí, of a self-willed temper,

Secretly taking with her a bottle and some roasted wheat, cried:—

"Where are you Lobhá munshí?

Go on, we will go to Gyámbung or live in Sunam."

Lobié manelé roplied: "'I'll not go to Gyámbung by

Lobhá munshí replied:—" I'll not go to Gyámbung, because I have landed property worth more than a thousand rupees,

And at home is my dear wife, who has two sons."
The Padam and Lobha's love increased day by day,

Padam Dásí's ring is on Lobha's hand,

And Lobhá munshí's ring on Padam Dásí's hand;

But there is no hope of their meeting in this world, Yet they will meet in the next, before its king, whose

name is Dharm Ráj.

The following song is in praise of the pretty daughter of the well-known plutocrat Hírá Dás ¹ of Kánam village:—

Baktáwarú chímet, Umar Dásí bánthin, Umar Dásí bánthinú gudó, sanish zung dháguló; sanish zung dháguló májang togotshé dháguló, togotshé dháguló nyumá, kot-bang tánang, kot-bang tánang nyumá, nijáú ngá kanthí. Dáyang lóshímá, rá-pyáú dáyang, láning lóshímá, khyun-pyáú láning; bánthin lóshímá Umar Dásí bánthín, man ban lóshímá, Umar Dásíú man ban. Baktábarú betá, Zíndup bayárá, Zindup bayárá, Zindup bayárá, Kyálkhar banderó; Kyálkhar banderó, lachhú pachim dé-rayiň.

l Hírá Dás Loktas of Kánam has two daughters: viz. Umar Dási and Gyálé. The latter has become a nun. He has four sons: viz. Ziňdup Rám or Ziňdup Darzé, Amír Chand, a student in F.A. Class at Lahore; Guláb Jít, at home: Sanam Jít, a student in Simla Government School.

Translation.

The pretty Umar Dásí is a rich man's daughter. She has on her hands twelve pairs of armlets, And in the midst of them a rare armlet. She has a box full of ornaments, And besides this twenty-five necklaces. To speak of a flock, 'tis a flock of wild pigeons, To speak of a line, 'tis a line of cranes, To speak of beauty, it is the beauty of Umar Dásí, And to speak of parents, it is Umar Dási's parents. O you wealthy man's son, dear Zindup,2 Will you please go to the forest of Kyálkhar? 8 To bring down the large leaves of the plant called Lachhú?

THE SONG OF SANTAN AND YANKAR MANI.

The following song describes the love of Sántan of Lábrang village for Yánkar Maní of the same village :-

Yochálo den tá, í káglí budá, da káglí kumó, byorá thü dushá? Byorá lonmá, nichhal bayárú byorá, Kánam Lóshar járayiň, Kánam lóshar má bunmá, Lochá zálmig járayiň, Lochí zálmig má bunmá, Kailású zálmíg járayiň, Kailású zálmig má bunmá, da báyár má nársh, roteú khárij háchó. Dakk ring ring bunmá, Láspáú goring den, Lápsaú chháng Sántan, báho parmí hát tó? Lábrang grokchú chímet, Yánkar Maní bánthin Báho-chú parmí, gü Rámpúr bitak, kí Rámpúr bímá, gü maitang bítak; kí bímá bírayiň, gü kimó tóshak, bímigú bérango, pírang parétó.

Translation.

There came a letter from the down country. What's the subject in that letter? It contains a message from the sincere friend:--"Come, please, to see the Losar fair of Kanam,"

villages in Shuwa pargana.

2 Ziňdup or Ziňdup Rám is the name of Umar Dásí's brother.

3 Ziňdup or Ziňdup Rám is the name of Shválkhar, a pla 8 Kyálkhar is another Kanáwari name of Shyálkhar, a place of Bashahr near Tibetan Frontier. It is also called Skyálkhar.

Lachhú is a kind of snowy plant having very large leaves in which they keep butter.

5 Losar (New year's Day) is the name of an annual fair held at Kánam village.

¹ Umar Dásí is the name of Hirá Dás Loktas's daughter of Kánam village in Shúwá parganá. Loktas is a sept of kanets living n Kanam and Sunam or Sunnam,

If not for fair, then come to visit Lochá! Lámá. If you do not like to see him, then come to witness the beauty of the Kailás 2 mountain, If you do not come, you will lose a golden opportunity, and will not be considered as a true friend. Coming up and ever up, the son of Láspá, Sántan * By name, arrived at his father's. Who is his darling? Yáňkar Maní, the beautiful daughter of Lábrang Grokch. O my dear, I'll go down to Rámpúr. If so, then I'll go to my paternal home. You may go if you are inclined to go, I'll live at home.

1898.7—The Song of Santi Lál Patwárí.8

At the time of departure, they are both very uneasy.

Yochálo den tá, Rájáu patwárí, Rájáu patwárí, Santí Lál Negí. Santí Lálas lotash, Rogé sántangó Yá pancho baiyár, arak tungmig chálshé Arak tungmig nyumchá, gofná shenmig chálshé. Arak tungmig chálmá, Nespáú 10 bráňdí, Nespáú bráňdí, rupayáu nish bótal. Dak nesh neshi bimá, Shúryánu 11 góring den, Shúryánú jáí, Bagatí 12 báňthin. Bagatí báňthin lotash, "ámá yá ámá," kumping tálang hám to? Arakú bótal twátak, Arakú bótal twútuk, palbar go/ná bítak,

² Kailás is the name of a very beautiful snow mountain situated opposite the Chini village across the Sutlej river in inner Tukpá parganá.

8 Láspá is a sept of Kanets living in Lábrang village. Sántan, a youth of Láspá sept of Lábrang village.

7 This song was composed in 1898. 8 Santí Lál Patwári, afterwards Qánúngo, was an inhabitant of Dúní village near Chini, and he is now dead.

Regi. a village near Chini, is celebrated for its grapes, of which they make wine. Rogé is declined from Rogi.

10 Nespá is an abbreviation of Nésángpá, meaning an inhabitant of Nésáng village, in Inner Tukpá parganá. They speak the Tibetan language there.

11 Shuryan, sept of kanets living in Rogi village.

Lochá is the name of a very respectable Lámá of Tássilumbo in Tibet. In 1898, he was sent for by the late Tiká Raghu Ntáh Singh, C.I.E., of Bashahr State, to consecrate the new Buddhist Temple at Rámpúr. The Lámá has also a temple at Kánam called "Lochá Lábrang." Labrang means a temple, but there is also a village of this name in Shumchho ghori.

⁵ Yáňkar Maní is the name of a girl of Lábrang. 6 Grokch is a sept of Kanets, as well as a post of village deity's official, Díňwáň in Pahárí.

¹² Bagatí or Bagtí is the name of Shuryán's daughter.

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"Amá jí dak lotash," áng báhó Bagtí báňthin,
Ang báhó Bagtí báňthin, ban yungzú nákchí shétayin?
Chéí péranu yág yág, Bagatí báňthin,
Nákich chám pánó, nákich yánglukú tánges,
Nákich yánglukú tánges, shum toprú shé-shé.
Santí Lálas lótash, áng zunmigshé saňgí,
Ang zunmigshé saňgí, bairang má dwáyiň-yáň?
Bagatí banthin lotash, gü bairang má büg,
Ki kumó járayíň, ♣albar go∫ná shété.

Translation.

There comes from the down country The Rájá's patwárí named Santí Lál Négí. Santí Lál said, in the temple court-yard of Rógí, "O you my dear friends, I wish to take some wine, And after taking a cup of wine, I wish to sing a song." If you wish to drink wine, here's brandi made by the Nésang people, The rate is two bottles per rupee. Then going straight to the house of Shuryan, There's the pretty daughter of Shúryán by name Bagatí. Bagatí the pretty maid said: "O mother, O mother, Where's the key of the grain box? I'll take out the liquor bottle, and go out for a singing dance. The mother then said: "O my dear pretty Bagatí, Will you disregard the honour of your parents?" When all the family members are asleep, the pretty Bagatí Is spinning wool for a little blanket, With three stripes on it. Santí Lál said: O my dear companion, Will you not come out for a while? Bagati the pretty maid replied: "I won't come out, But you should come in, we'll sing a song."

A LOVE SONG.

Junmig saňgiú tánges, ráng dání chálshé, Ráng dání báskyáng, dání lí maidán, Dání lí maidán, jaňgal lí maňgal, Jaňgal lí maňgal, thánang lí títháng, Thánang lí títhang, nayang lí kúlang, Nayang lí kúlang, kúlang lí báyú, Afar farak báskyáng, chhirap farak dúgyó.

Translation.

For the sake of a dearly friend, the peak seems to me like a ridge,

And a ridge like a plain country,

A forest like the city,

A house like a sacred place,

A river like a small channel,

A channel like a small pond,

I think there is no difference now, but a very little difference.

TIBETAN MORALS.

 "Ponpó dágpó yodnang, misar chig chig khor-mi-yong; Ponpó zámpó yodnang, misar mángbo khor-yong: Dí máshenang, sángpo-lá toyé."

"Chhú dágpo yotsá lá, nyấ chig chig khor-mi-yong, chhú zámpo yotsá-lá, nyá mángbo chhág-yong."

If a governor is hard, none of the subjects go near him, And if he is mild, all of the subjects approach him;

If you do not understand this, see in the river, No fish live there where there is current water.

Many fish live there where the water is still, or quiet.

 "Ráng-lá medpai tá-zon sang, sem khotak chhotpai káng tháng gá."

If you have to go and no pony to ride, then you should go there by foot.

Compiled by Pandit Tiká Rám Joshí, Retired Secretary of Basháhr.

PROVERBS AND RIDDLES IN THE KANAWARI LANGUAGE.

1. "Dám mí rang shímo lí bímig, Kocháng mí rang jámo lí má bímig."

It is good to go with a good man, even to death,
But it is not good to go with a wicked man, even to
a feast

2. "Khórang khású den rá húlas."

To sacrifice a hundred sheep for the sake of a lame ewe. (Penny wise and pound foolish).

3. "Chorasú báll den chám púnang."

There is a bit of wool on the thief's head:
(i.e. he is ashamed of himself).

4. "I rángú den nish gá".
Two saddles on one horse.

5. "Nish nárú dách sutanú posh bróbar."

The husband of two wives is like bedding made of trousers, i.e he is as uncomfortable as if he slept in his trousers.

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 - 6. "Nish chin májangú í rig."

 A louse between two nails: (i.e. at death's door).
 - 7. "Banthin chhesmí stingú nár, dhankhangó fó migú shyá."

 A beautiful woman is a fair sight to every one,
 But a deer on a precipice is only to look at, not to eat.
 - 8. "Fó dhaňkhangó bánthó oms."

 The deer on the rock is like a share reckoned on beforehand. (First catch your hare).
 - 9. "Shyon má néné sántan kher."

 Not knowing how to dance, he says the courtyard is uneven. (A bad workman quarrels with his tools).
 - 10. "Sachá demo Kánam, bánthin chías Sunam."

 The soil of Kánam is fine, the maidens of Sunam beautiful.
 - 11. "Chháche pyáchú omoí wá, lanthan miú bátangí chókhas." A tired bird's nest is on the road, and a lazy man uses sharp words, i.e. a tired bird will roost even on the road, and a lazy man speak.
- 12. "Khul bár bár tág."

 The skin bag once broken, out comes the barley.
- 13. "Kumo nangi, bairang angi."

 Hollow inside, pretty outside.
- 14. "Heradas shó kotya-tá anú báll den."

 The bull, having dug up the mud, puts it on its head.
- 15. "Jítasú ráng, dáldishú báng."

 The rich man's horse, and the poor man's leg are equally useful.
- 16. "Brássú báll den fupot."
 Bráss with flowers on its head. (Bráss is a kind of hill grain, which when uncultivated becomes stunted, and its flowers decrease in size).
- 17. "Fó dále rang mó, or Fó dál dál kuí." He discharges his arrow, after the deer has fled.
- 18. "Desháng gháṭochú bré tég."
 In a small village, the grain measure is large.

- 19. "Yángpá kuí wár na pár."

 The dog of Yángpá village is neither beyond the Wáng river nor on this side of it.
 - Cf. Dhobí ká kuttá ghar ká na ghát ká.
- 20. "Kulang khyá khyá nár jímig, kúlang khyá khyá tí tungmig."
 After seeing her family, a wife should be chosen;
 Water should be drunk, seeing the spring.
- 21. "Dú bunmá chhommig, bar bunmá bó-mig."
 To catch an eatable, to escape from a rolling stone.
- 22. "Yágim yámá kuí tuámig, toshim yámá pérang tuámig."

 If you want to sleep, feed your dog,

 If you want to live, help your kith and kin.
- 23. "Jedk sargang zustang, gu áng kimo pútak."
 I'll get home before the sky clouds over
- 24 "Shitak chálmá tá páltang thú lántak?" Had I known that I must die, why should I have undergone so much toil for the land?
- 25. "Tepang kumpi, mi árolyámig."

 The cap is under his own pillow, yet he bothers people in vain (by asking where it is).
- 26. "Hud bátang unchis nyód, daú púrá máech."
 Words instigated, and begged food, do not satisfy.
- 27. "Chháng krábmá krábim sheyíň, dáchú kocháng thá lórayiň."
 Let the son weep if he will, but don't speak ill of the husband.
- 28. "Om id kájang nish, or Omm id kájáng nish."
 One road, two purposes. (To kill two birds with one stone.) Cf. Ek panth dó káj.
- 29. "Oms dwánmá jyú den, nyums dwánmá dánang."
 Risk of life onward,
 Fear of fine backward. (Fine, i.e. punishment).
 Cf. Age jáúň tó Rávan máre,
 Píchhe rahúň tó Rám máre.

A woman is supposed to say:—I don't mind if my son is unhappy, but I will hear no ill of my husband.
 kújang = business: from Hindi káj.

30. "Mi ghátochú bátang tég."

The man is little, but his words are long.

31. "Hur-hur fáshang."

Tickling the itch. (It means that the itching increases itch).

32. "Pon tá tá shyálesú, kui tá tá thárrú, Nár tá tá hár, jáss tá tá hedu."

Unused shoes are for the jackal, an unfed dog for the leopard, an unloved wife will never stay, and stale food is for others.

33. "Pyúú shím, pishíú khélang."

The mouse's death is the cat's play.

34. "Shyádpe Lámá shyádpe, há-migo Lámá."

The Lámá preaches to others, but never practises what he preaches.

35. "Hab játak néo, hub."

The ass went to get horns, but lost his own ears.

Cf. No. 50.

36. "Láye káyang, shupá upáshang."

Dancing by day, and fasting by night.

37. "Jámig gháto, unmig bodí."

To eat little, and ask much.

38. "Shú deorango shyáre, munring práye shyáre,
Láng khurango shyáre, shímig anú kimo shyáre."
The village god looks handsome at his temple,
Maidens look pretty at their husband's houses,
Cows look handsome at the cattle stall,
To die at one's own home is good.

39. "Fochú bergá shell, rángú chámbak shell."

The remedy for an ass is the cudgel, and for a horse the whip.

40. "Kágg chháryará pájiú chummig, or Pájí chháryará kágg chummig."

> Having let go the crow to catch a hawk, or having let go a hawk to catch a crow. Cf. A bird in hand is worth two in the bush.

41. "Hándí firí Wángtú."

Wandering here and there, and back again at Wangtu Bridge. (Wherever one goes, one gets home at last).

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 - 42. "Blech páno gud."

 In slipping the hand lights upon a stone. (It never rains but it pours).
- 43. "Nóling shím, tóling kráb."

 Dead last year, mourn this year.
- 44. "Kágg shúshis lí má shúshis lí rokkí."

 The crow, washed or unwashed, is still jet black.
- 45. "Shi mi rang kráb."
 A lament over a corpse. ('Tis no use weeping before a dead man, for he can not hear).
- 46. "Bándras gudó norel." A (cocoanut) pipe in a monkey's hand.
- 47. "Shoryáshis chhángú meling koṭagó klí."

 The favourite son's urine in the fire-place. (Even those we love trouble us).
- 48. "Nárú roshanges chhángú kulim."

 Angry with his wife, and beating his son.
- 49. "Nákich pyáchú motas títyáng."
 The bird is small, but it sings a loud song. Cf. No. 28 above).
- 50. "Imyá zub, áemyá krub."

 At one time eating too much, at another time fasting.
- 51. "Jámig bodí, golang nákich."

 Plenty to eat, but a narrow throat.
- 52. "Mángsarang fó, rut untak ringo, kánangí góshob."
 An ibex of Mángsarang (a forest above Morang village) asked for horns, but lost its ears. (Cf. No. 33).
- 53. "Nyár omchí bátlas, chó omchí chókhas."

 The grain of a pea is naturally round, and a thorn is naturally sharp.
- 54. "Rigú tánges khur rásmig."

 To sharpen one's knife for the sake of a louse. (To crush a fly on the wheel).
- 55. "Bájnyách gaňthang, wárkyo shapthang."
 A ringing bell's sound goes far.
- 56. "Pyá lí zob, wá lí zob." The bird was burnt, and so was its nest.

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 [N.S.]
 - 57. "Aiú thu tod, báyáú da tod."

The sickness from which grandmother suffers, is also the younger brother's. (Six of one and half a dozen of the other).

58. Shingú bángas hóhab.''

Fallen—owing to his wooden leg.

59. " Miú amí Khágpá mí."

The men of Khábo village are the enemies of mankind. (Khábo village is in Tibetan territory).

- 60. "Shingú ashing shyárú shing."

 Shyárú wood makes bad fuel. (Shyárú is a kind of tree).
- 61. "Yunegó yáng, golchhángo rig sán."

 Sleeping by day, and killing lice moonlight.
- 62. "Panditú omsko kathá má-támig, Kágú omsko mó má-chháryámig." No tale should be told before a learned man, No arrow should be shot at a crow.
- 63. "Miú bishang leó, sápesú bíshang preó."

 Man has poison in his tongue, the snake in its tail.
- 64. "Búringú báll zgom, bichárú báll dén."

 The bribe-taker hangs his head down,
 The man of lofty thoughts holds his up.
- 65. "Ban pishis kim pishi byon."

 A wild cat will expel a tame one.
- 66. "Lis tis peting pang: or Lis tis petang pang."

 To fill one's stomach with cold water.
- 67. "Gárr toshtang wánmig, mig toshtang khyámig."

 So long as there are teeth to smile, and so long as there are eyes to see.
- 68. "Jámig gháto kastang bodí."

 So much toil, and so little to eat. (Much ado about nothing).
- 69. "Miú pírang, ronú khóyang."
 Pain to man and rust to iron.
- '' Námang rásk, fyá páshk.''
 A great man, but an evil fate.

- 600 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [September, 1911.
 - 71. "Kuí kunmá, shyáles tháscho."

 If we call the dog, the jackal will hear.
 - 72. "Kuíú ku-ku, rágas chílyám."

 To throw stones at a dog, after having called him.
 - 73. "Soko shi-shi, puchhnang den."

 The scorpion is dead, but its tail strikes up.
 - 74. "Spug gwá-gwá lí dangí, rig sikya-kyá lí dangí."

 The flea jumping at the same spot,

 The louse creeping at the place. (Cf. No. 79).
 - 75. "Pishi khu-shede rang, túshang pachim."

 A cat looks for straw, when going to stool.
 - 76. "Kárr má chástang, joll chám."

 Before a sheep dances, the wool of its hind legs dance.
 - 77. "Jonmyánmig nyums, dingyámang oms."

 One's birth happens afterwards, but one's fate is settled beforehand.
 - 78. "Rále káyang, bále ḍáṇang."

 He is dancing at Rále (a place below Bárang village),
 but does not know of the fine imposed on him.
 - 79. "Spug gwá-gwá khurangó, nyárr gwá-gwá khalangó."

 The flea jumping in the cattle-yard,

 The pea jumping in the farm-yard. (Cf. No. 74).
 - 80. "Fóchú puchnang téjap rinmá lí rin-bang."

 Measure it as often as you will, the ass' tail is only a cubit.
 - 81. "Fóchú téjap tongmá lí purchyúling."

 As often as you beat an ass, dust will come out.
 - 82. "Yáguí shyá, yaguí theló."
 He cuts the yák's flesh upon its flesh.
 Cf. Usí ká jútá usí ká sir.
 (Thelo, the piece of wood in which meat is cut).
 Lit: For cutting up the yák meat, he used the yák meat as a block.
 - 83. "Zann táng táng chóres."
 Seeing his ragged clothes, they call him thief.
 - 84. "Nyod má nímá, kankang nyod."

 If there are no supplies, then wheat is our diet.

- 85. "Gáss má nímá, kapráú gáss."
 - If there are no woollen clothes, there are clothes of cloth.
- 86. Choresú byángas zákhrangó, zákhrangó ngá chores."

 Into a bush in fear of a thief, but in the bush there were five thieves.
- 87. "Omsko máechú, nyumsko."

 Íf not forward, then backward.
- 88. "Má-fáňoh málá, fóchú gondrang."
 An ass's urine is worthless."
- 89. "Tora dá thwáksí, talá dá ywáksí."

 Up by the selfish, down by the fortune.
- 190. "Talá máech míú, záng serkháó bimá, zang shyo."

 If an unlucky man goes to a gold mine, it will give out.
- 91. "Kágas dálango, pyús dábrangó."

 The crow takes to a bough, and the mouse to a hole.
- 92. "Rugchú tánges jánn pongmig."

 To burn a rag for the sake of a louse's eggs.
- 93. "Angú kemá máthas, ángú má kemá má máthas."

 If you give me something, then you are a great man, but if you do not, then you are not a great man.
- 94. "Koeháng omo fóchú nesh tukmá, ló tukchó."
 On a bad road if an ass is pushed on, he will shove back.
- 95 "Bátang rórói sár, dálmang folfoli sár."

 It is excellent to talk a thing out, the flavour of a pomegranate is only got after it is broken.
- 96. "Wáskyár maechú, wáshang bodí." Not a good height, but a long moustache.
- 97. "Ano ano khul thongmig
 To knock the grain bag of skin, owing to hunger.
- 98. "Márr mi kotya-tá rólang, kui khu kotya-tá gáṇam."
 You will stir up a quarrel by teasing a bad man, and stench by meddling with a dog's excrement.
- 99. "Pyá gor-gor má shích, mí rungshis má shích."
 A bird is not killed by falling, a man does not die from disgrace.

- 602 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [September, 1911.
- 100. "Práchas thán-thán lí domang, krúchas thán-thán lí dómang."
 Whether touched by finger or elbow, he is of a low caste.
- 101. "Pyá pákhangas té'g, mí tonangas té'g."

 A bird is strong on account of its wings, a man is powerful by his kith and kin.
- 102. "Khyámigú mi, kánmigú rut."

 A man in looks, but a brute in deeds.
- 103. "Dáldishú khágó, jítasú áyó."
 A wicked man is proud, and a rich one gentle. (Cf. Chhoté se utpát, bare se kshamá).
- 104. "Koňkaneú pal, pal chírang dashá."

 The ant gets wings at the time of its death.
- 105. "Migú sukhang, stingú an kálang."
 Good crops to look at, but a famine at heart.
- 106. "Kuiú thu lá'j, thákurú lá'j."

 The dog has no shame, but it brings shame to its master.
- 107. "Mó nimá zukto, chhá nimá tákto." An arrow will pierce, but not salt.
- 108. "Bándrasú kámang má·erang, shí zunám."

 A monkey having no work, will shake a tree.
- 109. "Brin miú den látang."

 Kick the man who is down.
- 110. "Báyá báyá fáiyá."

 Hanging up and saying brother.
- 111. "Dáldishú chhángú shónang fátan." A poor man's son will survive in July.
- 112. "Mogg máchú shogg."

 A bird's belly without the grain.
- 113. "Sharmas sharmas stish poglang."

 Shame, shame, an unmarried woman with seven sons!
- 114. "Donas lish, kilang zô'm."

 The master, who is mild, is like a nail, which is hot:
 i.e. he can be turned whichever way you will.

- Vol. VII, No. 9.] Ethnography of the Bashahr State. [N.S.]
- 115. "Mdlá má sheshch Rin-mí, pársí má néch Mon-mí.'

 A thing is not recognized by the men of Rirang village, and the men of Kámrú or Mone village do not know Persian.
- 116. "Máthas kushim, chág churshim."

 He goes to call Máthas, as well as to grind the barley.

 (To kill two birds with one stone). Cf. No. 28.
- 117. "Mon-mi bátang líg líg, bálbálsho thíg thíg."

 The words of Kámrú villagers are weighty, and the wild strawberry is very sweet.
- 118. "Stó pujérang máe, puchhnang pujérang to."

 He was not present at the right moment, but is now present when he is not wanted.
- 119. "Dangi mogg, dangi shogg."

 There's the belly and there's the grain.
- 120. "Kágg báskyáng kágg chháng dingas."

 A crow's nestling is cleverer than the crow.
- 121. "Báng báyátak ringo, stó laso."
 In saving one's food, to get one's face in the mud.
- 122. "Kággú báng dálango, shyónang khúo."

 The crow's foot is on the bough, but his beak is in the excrement.
- 123. "Khákango káge, manango sángkó."

 Gentle of mouth, but hard of heart.
- 124. "Prách ránmá, krúchí zob."

 Giving one's finger, and getting one's elbow burnt, i.e. incurring heavy loss in helping another in a small matter.
- 125. "Táng nyámu batyámá batyámá kumoí." A low caste man of Tángo ⁸ village enters affably.
- 126. "Sto má-khyámig miú báng khyám."

 He chanced to see the foot of one whose face it was not desired to be seen.
- 127. "Bándras sá-sá khul na ball."

 When you kill a monkey, neither its skin nor its head is of use.

8 A village in Tibetan territory.

A village in Outer Tukpá parganá, also called Mone.
A sept of Kanets found in Bárang and other villages.

- 604 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [September, 191].
- 128. "Khású hámyáí peṭing dwáí cháthang."
 Wherever the sheep gets food there it dwells.
- 129. "Man chhitalé, chháng báňthas."

 The mother is plain, but the son is comely.
- 130 "Proshimá, dengá lí báňthas."

 The root of a tree, if well ornamented, will be handsome.
- 131. "Manú shoryáshis chimet, zus tanshid yune."
 A mother's pet daughter, and the sun when clouded over, are no use.
- 132. "Da cháng hámá da tig dangí."

 Wherever there is green grass, there is the pheasant.
- 133. "Chámangú tháll anú káchyáng dábch."

 The weaver's comb pulls to his own side.
- 134. "Ráll kulmá kul, mánimá nyámú rétak."

 Pound away at the rice, or I'll sell you to a Tibetan.
- 135. "Pyú tế'g, puchhnang gháto."

 The mouse is big, but its tail is short.
- 136. "Chummá chikchó, chháryámá bóto."

 If I catch it, it will bite; and if I don't, it will run
 away.
- 137. "Kháú báskyáng chhob bodí."

 Food is scarce, but there is too much pulse.
- 138. "Desháng nónó tálk, khul nónó kolas." By oppression a village becomes hard, By rubbing skin becomes soft.
- 139. "Jáchas máechú páchas."

 Little food and much toil.
- 140. "Mí bínyáchú mí sál, shyá bínyáchú pá'chi."
 He, who picked his man, got a rogue,
 He, who picked meat, got the knuckle-bone.
- 141. "Rokk zedú peţingo chhas."A black goat has fat in its belly.
- 142. "Gomfá oms, longstám nyums."

 The step forward, but the thought backward.

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 [N.S.]
- 143. "Man totat shokrang."

 Mother is ill, therefore an orphan.
- 144. "Ráng den má pustang áú-shen,
 Tí dang má pustang pon sall."

 To halloo before reaching the summit,
 To put off one's shoes before reaching the stream.
- 145. "Rá'ch má-estang, rá'chú chhu-rid."

 A rope for tying up the calf before its birth.
- 146. "Chhogáú bérang bágé, záňdeú bérang dúré."

 Last in learning, but first in eating.
- 147. "Kháss rang bímá pábangó, bákhor rang bímá dhaňkhangó."
 You will find a meadow, if you go with the sheep, But a precipice, if you go with the goats.
- 148. "Petingú tánges jampring."

 To die for the stomach's sake!
- 149. "Peṭingú tánges sannyám shyo."

 Charity lost for the belly's sake!
- 150. "Fóchú chháng melchas dathú."
 Day by day the young of the ass gets uglier!
- 151. "Fóchú wálang fángs."

 It is useless to give an ass hay.
- 152. "Fóchás sángá golchháng máekstang, golchháng má nésh."

 The ass does not recognize the moon till it is full.
- 153. "Tháng mí dalá ukhyángí shó." The fair was spoilt by the Thángí men's delay.
- 154. "Tété shí-shí méchánang."

 He **a** tinder box after his grandfather's death.
- 155. "Ho ho shapthang rái upáshang."

 He calls "ho-ho" and fasts for eight days.
- 156. "An urchho, mángo fyurcho."

 He, being on a grain box, was cast away in a dream.

¹ A village in Inner Tukpá pargana.

- 606 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [September, 1911.
- "Mé kuchu puchu big, tí kuchu puchu dágg." The fire, if stirred, will be put out, And water, if stirred, will decrease.
- "Kutí rá má nót, chherá nót." (In the Shumchho 158. dialect). The envious man will harm no one but himself.
- "Chályalá túshang, khán khán dóshang." 159. Sifting husks, inquiring into defects.
- 160. "Khalú ubálang, chhesmiú sting brobar." Boiling oil cakes and a woman's mind are equal.
- "Chárang nyám, batyás má-ne-ne, stish-jap dánang." 161. A Tibetan of Charang | village, not knowing how to speak, was fined seven times.
- "Jángpá mí má nársh, fátegá shing má nársh, 162. botí kholá jáss má nársh, lowá shyá má nársh." The inhabitants of Jángí 2 village are not reckoned as men. Shingles are not reckoned as fuel, Cheese and roasted flour are not regarded as food, And the lungs are not regarded as flesh.
- "Tukpákpáú tuk sting, Shúwángpáú shum sting." 163. The inhabitants of Tukpá parganá have six minds, while those of Shuwa pargana have only three.
- "Shúwe miú chhángá shiérang, rín choras dwáto." 164. On a son's death among the Shuwa pargana people, heavy debts come to light: i.e., It is a pity that a son should die, but a greater pity that one should have to pay his debts.
- 165. "Nyám thukpá próbang ém, dám chháng nímá idí dám." A cupful of the Tibetans' curry is delicious, If dutiful, one son is quite enough.

PROVERBS IN THE TIBETAN LANGUAGE

"Gongmo nyál mishená báláng nang dá, 166. Nángmo long mishená khyí nang dá." He, who does not get to sleep early, is like a cow, And he, who does not get up early, is like a dog.8

A village in Outer Tukpá parganá.
 A village in Shúwá parganá.
 Cf. Early to bed and early to rise, Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.

- Vol. VII, No. 9.] Ethnography of the Bashahr State.
 [N.S.]
- 167. "Chhugpoi tá zonnang, medpoi gó chom."

 If a poor man ride a rich man's horse, he will break his neck.

PROVERBS IN THE KANÁWARÍ LANGUAGE.

- 168. "Yal dang bibi chershim, prá den bibi chholshim."

 He, who goes near a wild rose, gets pricked,
 And he, who goes into court (lit. fort) will have to pay
 something: i.e., will get fined.
- 169. "Ráng má nímá fochí lass." If there is no pony then an ass will do.
- 170. "Jásho má jásho nú chipurú shyá, sángá tolá ḍáṇang."

 Whether you eat it or not, this is the liver for which you had to pay a fine of Rs. 15.1
- 171. "Mi má gothanchú ráng gothanch."

 He, who has never ridden a pony, wishes to cross a hill.
- 172. "Dúchis dáchis í chháng, da lí zwású kháe."

 He had a cherished son, but he too was taken away by death. (God was so displeased with him).
- 173. "Gudo shang tonmá tá kágá lí zábto"

 If there is boiled rice in one's hand, the crows will come down.
- 174. "Nyám chháng shwí táng táng kráb-gyo."

 Having seen blood, the Tibetan boy cried out.
- 175. "Chanálasú báll den shwíg tépang má-shá."

 A red cap does not look well on the head of a basketmaker.
- 176. "Kin chháng ywá táyíň, áng chháng tólyáyíň."

 Put your own son down, and carry mine.
- 177. "Pánú den kin, melingú áng.
 Cooked for me, uncooked for you.
- 178. "An émá spon ém."

 If hungry, a dog will even eat shoes.

 Cf. Bhúkh míthí ki bhójan.

¹ A man had stolen some goat's liver, and when it was cooked he could not eat it, so his friends said this.

- 608 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [September, 1911.
- 179. "Kháring sojaso bré-bang bogress."

 In a maund of rice or wheat, there is always a sér of inferior grain.
- 180. "Rungshimig miú omó khólgang."

 He who speaks evil of any one, will get his deserts.
- 181. "Bodí jáchú bodí an, bodí fogshichú bodí liss."

 He suffers much hunger, who eats too much,
 And he endures much cold, who wears too much.
- 182. "Mordú bátang, rágú rékhang."

 The word of a wise man is like a line on a stone.
- 183. "Krámmú dáng wánnú lí madd gyámig."

 There is a time for weeping and a time for laughter.
- 184. "Chhetkang toshtang, poshbángú thu thád."

 A servant has no power in his master's presence.
- 185. "Unchich miú bok dú."

 The beggar's food is warm.
- 186. "Sud nímá bud."

 Where there is union, there is wisdom.
- 187. "Rokerú mámá anú nár dáng siyáno."
 Uncle Rokerú, the mother's brother, is wiser than his wife.
- 188. "Chámangú dágí lonmo lí sukhang."

 It is easy to know a shoe-maker—that he is of a mean caste.
- 189. "Yun má nemá, gorab gárab."

 He who knows not how to walk, will tumble down.
- 190. "Khulú jogás chhu-rid pachim gyámig."
 A strap ought to fit a bag.
- 191. "Tepang tonmá págú paráchí."

 If one has a cap, a piece of cloth for it is easily found.

 (In Kanáwar a black cap made of wool is worn, and to it is sewn a bit of cloth).
- 192. "Kocháng áshás golang ruyám."
 Never rely on vain hopes.

¹ Rokerú is a sept of Kanets of the higher class found in Chugáoň or Tholang.

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 [N.S.]
- 193. "Kólas shyáo khur."

 A knife for tender meat.
- 194. "Nádas bíú má-ringch, chhesmis járá má-ringch."

 A place never says "go away," and a woman never says "come here."
- 195. "Rókerú áte kher panchí-shyá."

 Brother Rokerú has lost his case. (Cf. No. 187).
- 196. "Bótó tí shyáó khur."

 Water in the curds, and a knife in the meat: i.e., mix as much water as you can with curds, and stick your knife into the meat as far as it will go.
- 197. "Nukri lán lán tukri." Only a bit of bread after hard service.
- 198. "Wábang pángatas zampring."

 There is death in evil company.
- 199. "Mi khyámpos desháng fyontó, kui khyámpos desháng rungto." Immigrants ruin a country, but a dog watches a village.
- 200. "Rok kágú májang thog kág."

 A white crow among the jackdaws.
- 201. "Tud krábgyo, thid wádo."

 Debts weep and credit laughs.
- 202. "Chháng manú dá boltó, rín hedú dá boltó."

 A child thrives with its mother, and a debt grows against the debtor.
- 203. "Manú zúyá chháng den, chhángú zúyá pán den."

 The mother's heart is with her son, and the son's with his bread.
- 204. "Mi rinú yóthang má shích,"
 Pyá pomú yóthang má shích."
 A man does not die under his debt, or a bird beneath the snow.
- 205. "Shyálik-chú dúrang."

 The first place to a jackal.

- 610 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [September, 1911.
- 206. "Rámpúr shaudo Nogrí gá'n."

 Buying at Rampur and making out the bill at Nogrí iriver: i.e., have your bill made out at once.
- 207. "Jámú kágshim skótó, pírang kágshim má skó."

 An eatable can be divided, but not a pain.
- 208. "Wángpó" chhechánú peṭing fármo, Shum kárú shyás má grig-gyó."

The stomachs of the Bhábá parganá women should be broken, for they were not satisfied with the flesh of three sheep.

TIBETAN MORALS.

- 209. "Yod-pái dúi-sú kun-kyán nen,
 Gál-thé gun-ná kun-kyáng dú,
 Ring chen ling dú sui kyáng dud,
 Chho-kampálá sui kyáng pong."

 If you are rich then every one will respect you,
 But if poor, no one will like you,
 Because diamond mine is coveted by every one,
 But a dry well by nobody.
- 210. "Kháipá jitar tháb-duk kyáng, Lunpo juk-pái lám-mídó, Chá-id jiú khá kom kyáng, Sálá báb-pái chhú mí-thung."
 If a wise man makes a mistake, He never persists in his folly, Because the air-drinking bird never Comes down to the earth to water.
- 211. "Ráng lá ngán semp med chahité, Fá rol zán lá hid mí-tan, Rí dak gyun dú semp záng kyáng, Chhé bá chán nam zahi sú ngom." Don't tell any one that Your heart is pure, For even the clean wild animals Are attacked by a leopard.

Akpá is a hamlet in Shúwá parganá, celebrated for its grapes: there is an old rhyme which runs:—

212. "Deshángú námang Akpá, Posh shennig pákpá,

1 The name of a rivulet near Rámpúr.

² Wángpó, a term for the inhabitants of parganá Bhábá.

Jamigú thukpá, Gáchhyásming thákpá, Bistú námang Dákpá." The village is called Akpá,

The skin of an animal for bedding. A woollen rope for one's dress,

And the name of the minister is Dákpá (an uncomplimentary term for Dágí).

Asrang is a village beyond the high range above Rárang 1 in the Shuwa pargana, and about a mile or so further on is the hamlet of Tokhto where there is a fine praying wheel. At Asrang is the home of a family named Shyuna, or 'Ghost,' regarding which an anecdote is told, which runs :-

"Asrang Shyuna, Mellam Mashan, 213. Rírang ⁵ Rákshas, ⁶ Ginam ⁷ Shyálí. ⁸

> Once on a time four persons of the four villages of Asrang Mellam, Rirang, and Ginam or Morang, bearing the titles of Shyuna, "ghost," Mashan, "goblin," Rákshas, "demon," and Shyáli "jackal," respectively, met one dark night near the Wangtu Bridge, when travelling on business. One of them asked, "Who are you?" The reply was, "Asrang Shyuna." Then the other inquired, "Who are you?" The reply was, "Mellam Mashan," meaning, "the goblin of Mellam." Then the third man was asked who he was. His reply was, "Rirang Rákshas," meaning. "the demon of Rírang." When the fourth was asked, he replied, "Ginam Shyáli," meaning, "the jackal of Ginam." On hearing these words, all the four persons were so much struck with terror that not one of them could move, but stood still till day-break, then when they found that they were the men bearing the titles of Shyuna, etc., and not the ghosts, etc., as suggested by them, they thanked God for escaping danger, and proceeded joyously to their destinations.

¹ Rárang, a village in Shúwá parganá.

² Shyuna, a sept of Kanets in Asrang village. 8 Mellam, a village in Rajgáoň parganá, a sept of Kanets called Mashán lives there.

Mashan, a sept of Kanets in Mellam village.

Rirang, a village in the Inner Tukpá parganá, where a sept of Kanets known as Rákshas dwells.

⁶ Rákshas, a sept of Kanets in Rírang village.
7 Ginam or Mórang, a village in the Inner Tukpá pargand, where a sept of Kanets termed Shyálí resides.

Shyali, a sept of Kanets in Ginam or Morang village.

RIDDLES.

- 1. "Májang sak-tió bát-bang khirang."

 In the middle of the stream, there's a dish full of milk.

 (The moon).
- "An lí má jách, ángú lí má kéch."
 He neither eats himself, nor lets me eat. (A lock).
- "Shum nudbású í pág."
 Three friends with one turban. (A cooking tripod).
- 4. "Páldar mámáú gáchhyángo zed-pug."

 Uncle Páldar has roasted wheat in his pocket.

 (A musk-deer).
- "An tá rulá, bándras khelyá."
 It shakes like a monkey's play. (A bunch of grapes).
- 6. "Kub kub khwángchó thó-ráll."

 White grains of rice in a deep vessel. (The teeth).
- "Dániú nud yod nish nudbás, má tángshimig má chhugshimig."
 Two friends one on each side of a ridge, cannot see nor visit each other. (The eyes).
- 8. "Rin-bang rim-chó, kod-bang bíyang."

 In a field as broad as one's hand are two sers of seed.

 (A written paper).
- 9. "Dúdú jángalo zángú díwang."
 Golden lamps in a dark forest. (Jack-o-lanterns).
- 10. "Man chhitale, chháng málikan."A wicked mother's beautiful child. (The edible pine).
- "Rokk khulchó shwig chhurí."
 A red knife in a black skin. (A black bird).
- "Mulú bátichó zángú tiknang."
 A golden eye in a silver cup. (A narcissus).
- 13. "Sái mordas í mord frálmig."

 Ten men cause a man to fall. (Bread).
- 14. "Stupchó nangch, kotichó má nangch"

 It can be carried in the hand, but not put in a box.

 (A gun).
- 15. "Oms rokk, nyums shwig."

 Black at first and red afterwards. (Fire).

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 - 16. "Gháich khwángchó em jáss."

 Sweet food in a tiny vessel. (A walnut).
 - 17. "Kyushonú jáll thoshim máskó."

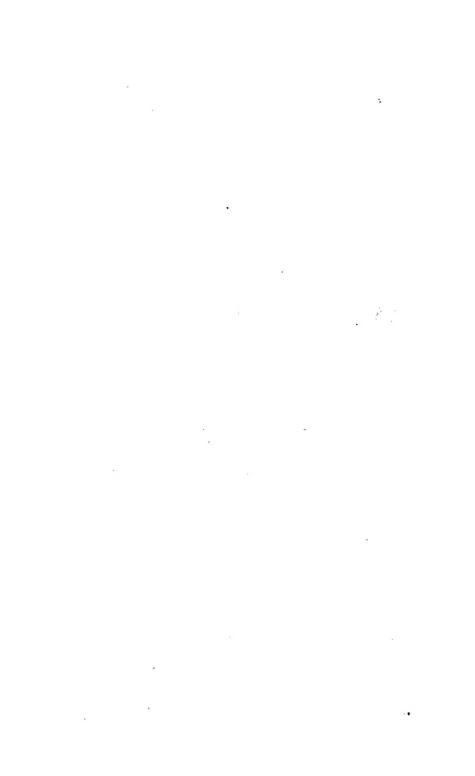
 A handsome whip which cannot be lifted. (A snake).
 - 18. "Pátle dámas daňyáshim máskó."

 A spotted ox that cannot be trained. (The leopard).
 - 19. "Shyáng-ráles rim hesim máskó."

 A stony field that cannot be ploughed. (The sky).
- 20. "Rokk jánchó shipí rug chá."

 In a black sheet there are countless louse's eggs.

 (The sky).



41. Dinäjpur Pillar Inscription.

By RAMA PRASAD CHANDA, B.A.

Communicated by the Hon. Mr. Justice Mukerji.

The stone pillar, 8'-4" in height, that bears this short inscription in three lines, embodying a single stanza in Sardulabikriditā metre, now stands in the garden in front of the palace of the Mahārājā of Dinājpur. The pillar was brought to Dinājpur by Mahārājā Rāmnāth in the eighteenth century. The inscription was published by Westmacott with Dr. Rajendra Lala Mitra's translation and comments, and a crude lithograph in the Ind. Ant., Vol. I, pp. 127-128. Dr. Mitra's translation was criticised by Dr. R. G. Bhandarkar in a letter published along with Westmacott's paper, which drew forth a reply from Dr. Mitra. and a rejoinder from Dr. Bhandarkar. The controversy rested there, and the inscription slipped out of the memory of the scholars, for it finds no place in Dr. Kielhorn's list of Inscriptions. It is briefly noticed by the late Dr. Bloch in the Annual Report of the Archaeological Survey, Bengal Circle, for the year 1900-1901, where he wrongly reads Gaudapati as Sidapati. Drs. Mitra and Bhandarkar failed to come to any agreement as to the meaning of the compound Kunjaraghatavarsena, the former taking it in the sense of "in the year 888", and the latter as an adjunct of the subject Gaudapati and meaning "he who pours forth an array of elephants.'' But whatever the real meaning of Kunjaraghatavarsena may be, there can be no doubt about the purport of the inscription. It records the erection of a temple of Siva by a Lord of Gauda, belonging to the Kāmboja family; and it is possible, with the help of the letters and historical data furnished by other documents, to approximately ascertain the date of this unknown Gauda king, and thereby recover a forgotten chapter of the early history of Bengal.

The letters are very carefully and beautifully incised. While discussing the peculiarities of the letters of the Khākim-pur grant of Dharmapāla, Dr. Kielhorn notices the following peculiarities:—letters like pa, ma and sa are mostly open at the top, and the lower part of ma throughout is formed by a straight arm, pointing in a forward direction to the left, and shows nowhere a loop or round knob. He then observes in a note:—"In the Ghōsrāwā inscription of the time of Dēvapāla (Ind. Ant., Vol. XVII, p. 309, plate) the m with the loop is still

the exception, but in the Badal pillar inscription and in the Bhāgalpur plate of Nārāyanapāla it is used throughout." In the Dinajpur pillar inscription ma, pa and sa are not open at the top, and it shares these peculiarities, as well as the loop or knob of ma, with the Badal pillar inscription. Narayanapala is the great-great-grandson of Dharmapala. Therefore the Dinajpur inscription cannot be assigned to an age much earlier than that of the Badal pillar inscription. The other limit may be roughly fixed by comparing the letters of our inscription with those of the Devapada inscription of Vijayasena.2 Speaking of the development of the Eastern varieties of the Nagari alphabet. Bühler writes in his Indian Palæography:-"Towards the end of the eleventh century the Nagari inscriptions of Eastern India show such distinct traces of changes leading up to the modern Bengali writing, and these changes become so numerous in the twelfth century, that it is possible to class their alphabets as Proto-Bengali. An approximate idea of the Proto-Bengali may be obtained by comparing the characters of the following documents, represented in our plates:—(1) of the Deopārā Prasasti of about A.D. 1080-90 [pl. v., col. xviii], which includes Bengali e, kha, na, ta, tha, ma, ra, la, sa." 8

Of these letters ta, tha, ma, ra, la and sa occur in the Dinājpur inscription; and a comparison of these with those of the Devapada inscription forces upon us the conclusion that the Dinājpur inscription belongs to an earlier epoch. The use of the superscript r indicates that it cannot be placed later than the tenth century. It shares with the Badal Pillar inscription, the superscript r in all cases where r forms conjuncts with letters that follow it. Thus we have rbb in line 1, ryg in line 2, and rs in line 3. The superscript r is also used in the Nālandā inscription* of the eleventh year of Mahipāla and the Sārnāth inscription 5 of Samvat 1083 (A.D. 1026) of the same king. in the Dinājpur grant of Mahipāla, the Gayā inscription of the fifteenth year of his son Nayapāla, and in the Amgāchi grant of Nayapāla's son Vigrahapāla İII—in fact in all inscriptions executed in Bengal in the eleventh century, "r, preceding another consonant, is often written by a short line, sideways attached to the right side of the aksara of which it forms part, not by the superscript sign.'' 6.

With the help of the historical data furnished by other inscriptions it is possible to fix the date of the Gaudapati of the foreign Kāmboja family with greater precision. In the

¹ Epi. Ind., vol. ii, p. 160. ² Epi. Ind., vol. i, p. 305.

⁸ Ind. Pelæography, Ind. Ant., vol. xxxiii, app., p. 58.
4 J. and P. A.S.B. of 1908, plate vi.
5 Arch. Surv. Ind. Rep. 1903 4, p. 222, and plate lxiv, 4.
6 J.A.S.B. of 1892, Part I, p. 78; Cunningham's Report, vol. iii, plate xxxvii; Ind. Ant., vol. xxi (1892), p. 97.

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[N.S.]

Dinājpur grant of Mahīpāla I, whose Sārnāth inscription is dated in Sam. 1083 (A.D. 1026), it is said of the donor:—

" इतसकाविषयः सङ्गरे बाहुदर्धाः दनिश्वत-विज्ञां राज्य मासाद्य पित्रम् । निहित-चर्यापद्मो भूस्तां मूर्श्वितसा-दभवदवनिपालः श्रीमहौपालदेवः ॥ (verse 11)."

"From him (Vigrahapāla II) has sprung the protector of the earth, the illustrious Mahipāladeva. In the pride of his arm having slain in battle all opponents, and having obtained his father's kingdom which had been snatched away by people having no claim to it, he has put down his lotus foot on the

heads of princes."

The "people having no claim" who deprived Mahīpāla's father or grandfather of his kingdom, was no other than the Lord of Gauda of the Kāmboja family mentioned in the Dinājpur pillar inscription. In the Pāla period of the history of Bengal, from about A.D. 800 to 1100, there is only one epoch, that between the reigns of Nārāyaṇapāla and Mahīpāla I, of which we have not as yet found any memorial in Varendra (North Bengal). Before this epoch, reigned in succession the first five Pāla Kings—Gopāla I, Dharmapāla, Dēvapāla, Vigrahapāla I (alias Surapāla) and Nārāyaṇapāla. Of Bengal, before Gopāla I and of that king himself, Tārānāth writes (quoted by Cunningham, Arch. Sur. Ind., Vol. XV, p. 148):—

"In Orissa, Bengal, and five other provinces of the East, every Ksatriya, Brāhmana and merchant (Vaisya) made himself the chief of the districts; but there was no king ruling

the whole country.

"The widow of one of these departed chiefs used to kill every night the person who had been chosen as king, until after several years Gopāla, who had been elected king, managed to free himself and obtained the kingdom. He began to reign in Bengal and afterwards conquered Magadha."

A line in Dharmapāla's Khālimpur grant (verse 4) confirms Tārānāth's version of the way in which Gopāla obtained

the kingdom. The line runs:—

"मात्स्यन्यायमपाचितुं प्रकृतिभिर्णेच्न्या करं याचितः।"

"He was elected king by the people to put an end to anarchy (the condition of the fishes)." This confirmation of Tārānāth's account of the rise of the Pāla dynasty by an almost contemporary record warrants us to hold that the uncorroborated portion of his narrative, that Gopāla "began to reign in Bengal and afterwards conquered Magadha," may not

be baseless, and that Gopāla was a native of Bengal. Mr. V. A. Smith in his well-known Early History of India (Second Edition, p. 367) accepts this part of Tārānāth's account as genuine history, and the only possible objection to it based on the Nālandā and Bodh Gayā inscriptions of Gopāla is untenable, for it has been shown that on palæographical grounds these inscriptions cannot be pushed back to the time of Gopāla I, but must be assigned to the time of Gopāla II, grandson of

Nārāyanapāla and the grandfather of Mahīpāla I.

If Gopāla began to reign in Northern Bengal, it goes without saying that his mighty successor Dharmapala, who could unmake and make kings in far-off Kanyakubja, retained possession of this province. The memory of Dharmapala's son. and successor Devapala, and his daughter Bimala, is traditionally connected with Yogigopha and a neighbouring village, within the jurisdiction of thana Patnitala, District Dinajpur, and not far from Bannagar, the place where our inscribed stone pillar was originally found. A few miles to the east of Yogigophā, in a village called Haragauri after a temple of Haragauri situated on a mound in it, stands the so-called Badal pillar of Bhatta Gurava, minister of Nārāyanapāla. The vast ruins still called Dewanbari and the numerous big tanks in the vicinity of the pillar indicate that the hereditary ministers of the early Pala Kings had their home there. Of the three succeeding kings, Rājyapāla, Gopāla II, and Vigrahapāla II, son, grandson and great-grandson respectively of Nārāyanapālā, no memorial has as yet been discovered in Dinājpur; but of the later Pāla Kings, Mahīpāla I and his successors, memorials abound in the district. No less than three copper-plates, viz. of Mahipāla I. Vigrahapāla III and Madanapāla, have been discovered in Dinājpur, donating lands in the Kotivarsa Visaya, which, according to Sanskrit lexicons, is synonymous with Devikote and Banapura (Bannagar). These and other records, such as the Sarnath inscription of Kumāradevi, wife of King Gobindacandra of Kanauj (A.D. 1114-1154), whose maternal grandfather Mahana was king Rāmpāla's viceroy in Anga, Sandhyānkara Nandi's Rampalacarita, and the grant of Vaidyadeva of Kamrupa, prove that the later Pāla Kings retained possession of Varendra with only a short intermission owing to the rebellion of the Kaivarta chief Divyoka till the rise of the Sena Kings. It may. therefore, be safely concluded that the Kambojas conquered Varendra in the interval between the time of Nārāyanapāla and Mahipāla I, very probably in the reign of Vigrahapāla II, and that their power was overthrown by Mahipala I early in the eleventh century or a little earlier. If we take Kuñiaraghatā-

¹ Journal and Proceedings of A.S.B., 1908.

² Ep. Ind., vol. ix, p. 311. ³ Ep. Ind., vol. ii, p. 350

varsena of the inscription in the sense of Saka 888 (= A.D. 966) it fits in well with the data of history and paleography.

One other question that suggests itself in connection with this inscription is, who were the Kāmboja conquerors of Gauda? What country was then known as the land of the Kāmbojas? According to Foucher, Nepalese tradition applied the name Kāmboja-deša to Tibet. The Gaudapati of the Kāmboja family probably came from Tibet, Bhutan or some other Himalayan country at the head of a Mongolian horde, who are now represented by the Koch and the Paliyas of Northern Bengal, also known as Rājbaṇsis. These Koch-Rājbaṇsis of Varendra must be distinguished from the Rājbaṇsis living on the eastern side of the Karatōyā, who form a caste quite distinct from the Koch caste of that region. That these Koch are not late comers to Varendra, but were settled here even in the beginning of the thirteenth century A.D., is evident from Minhajuddin's account of Muhammad Bakhtiyār's journey to and back from Tibet and Kāmarupa.²

The inscription is very skilfully engraved at the base of the pillar and covers a space 1'1" by 2", the letters, on an

average, are a little over 1 an inch in length.

Text.

- (L. 1) खों दुर्खारारि-वरूधिनी-प्रमधने दाने च विद्याधरैः सानन्दं दिवि-
- (L. 2) यस्य मार्म्या-ग्राय-ग्रामग्रहो गीयते। काम्बोजान्ययनेन गीडपति-
- (L. 3) ना तेनेन्द्रभीचे रयं प्रासादो निरमायि कुझरघटा-वर्षेण भूभूषणः ॥

Translation.

This temple of the moon-crested [Siva], an ornament of the earth, was built [completed] in the year 888 by that king of Gauda of the Kāmboja family, whose ability in subduing the irresistible forces of the enemy, and whose discrimination of the merits of the suitors in giving gifts are sung by the Vidyādharas in heaven with delight.

Smith's Early History of India, 2nd Ed., p. 173.
 Tabakat-i-Näsiri, Raverty's Translation, Bib. Ind., pp. 560-572.

42. Two Buddhist Stone-images from Malda.

By A. K. MAITRA, B.L.

The interesting image-relics, recently discovered in the District of Malda, include two stone-images, in fairly excellent preservation, one of which has an inscription on its pedestal.

The find-spot is locally called Maĥibhintā (literally the site of the homestead of Maĥi), which may be connected with the memory of king Maĥipāla, whose name is still associated with many places in North Bengal, such as Maĥigunj in Rungpur, Maĥipāladighi and Maĥisantosh in Dinājpur.

Mahibhinta is not far from Pandua, which was once a metropolitan city in Eastern India. The neighbourhood was undoubtedly an important centre of Tantric Buddhism of the Mahayana school, which received a great impetus from the

Pāla kings of Bengal.

The first find that attracted attention was the uninscribed image. After it had been brought to Englishbazar, the discovery of the inscribed image was reported. It was, however, mysteriously missing for a time, until it came to be accidentally recovered after information had been lodged with the Police.

The inscription is only a record of the well-known Buddhist votive formula, carefully incised on the pedestal, in three lines of unequal length. It runs thus:—

- "Ye dharmmā hetuprabhavā hetum = teṣām = tathāgato"
- "Hyavadat=tesām=ca yo nirodha evam-vādi Mahāçramaṇah."

It appears to have been a custom to have this votive formula inscribed not only on Budhist images but also on Caityas, and Mr. Westmacott, a former Collector of Dinājpur, discovered it incised on a stone Caitya found near Patnitalā within his jurisdiction.

The formula in question purports to notify the superiority of the teachings of Buddha by alleging that "Tathagata (Buddha) explained the causes of all that proceed from a cause, and that he, the Mahacramanah, further expounded the causes

of the cessation of all existence."

The principal figure in this interesting stone-image has only two arms. The right arm is stretched out in the gift-bestowing posture called the *Varada Mudrā*, while the left holds a lotus-stalk. The right leg dangles down from the lotus-seat, in the well-known posture of *Lalitākṣepa*. The

head is adorned with a crown of clotted hair, in the midst of which is visible an image of Buddha, seated in meditation. On the left side is a female image with two arms. On each side of the halo there is a votive stupa, while on the top of the shrine is a piece of decoration, which seems to represent an umbrella. The lotus-throne is supported by two lions and the pedestal contains, besides the inscription, four images, apparently of four votaries.

It is clear that the principal image is not of Buddha himself, but of a Bodhisattva, and the presence of an image of Buddha, within the clotted hair, goes to show that the principal figure represents Bodhisattva Lokanātha. The description of Lokanātha, quoted from a Sādhanā by Monsieur Foucher, in his "Etude sur L'Iconographie Boudhique de L'Inde," agrees fairly well with the principal figure in every material parti-

cular.

Namo Lokanāthāya

Purvavat krama-yogena Lokanātham çaçi-prabham Hrihkārākṣara-sambhūtam jatāmukuta-manditam Vajradharma-jatāntastham = açesa-roganāçanam Varadam daksine haste vāme padma-dharam = tathā Lalitāksepa-samstham = tu mahāsaumyam = prabhāsvaram

Lokanātha, according to this description quoted from the Sādhanā, has a crown of clotted hair, in which is situated Vajradharma (Buddha), and has Varadamudrā in the right hand and a lotus in the left, and the posture in which he is seated is

called Lalitākṣepa.

The decorations, including the umbrella on the top of the shrine, and a stupa on either side of the halo, are not, however, noted in the Sādhanā. The lotus-throne supported by two lions and the pedestal containing the images of four votaries are similarly not notified therein. In these respects the artist might have been left free to use his discretion or adopt the local custom or taste. But the situation of a female image, to the left of the principal figure, constitutes a noticeable difference. If the female image is to be identified with Tārā, it should be placed to the right, instead of the left. But in this respect the sculptors often introduced a confusion between the right and the left of the principal figure and those of the artist, which Monsieur Foucher has not failed to notice.

These points of similarity as well as of dissimilarity make the Mahibhintā-image of Lokanātha an interesting iconographic specimen, as it may supply a clue to differences in the styles of sculpture, which found favour in different parts of India or the Buddhist world.

The uninscribed stone-image is that of Buddha himself. He is seated on the lotus-throne called Vajrāsana, in the posture of Vajraparyanka-samsthitam, without an attendant on each

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side, but with a stupa on each side of the halo, together with a tree decorating the top of the shrine. The attendant figures on the pedestal appear to be those of the Bodhisattvas, Lokes-

vara on the left, and Maitreya on the right.

The right hand of Buddha is placed in the posture which is called Bhumisparça Mudrā. The lotus-throne and the pedestal of this image offer certain peculiarities. Vajrāsana Buddha, according to the Sādhanā, should have four evil spirits (Māras) named Skandha, Kleça, Mṛtyu and Devaputra, to fill the vacant spaces on the front part of the throne. But they are not visible here. This image is, therefore, of some interest to students of Budhist iconography.

I am indebted for the photographs to the kindness of Sriman Jadunandana, son of Babu Krishna Lāl Chaudhuri,

Zemindär of Englishbazar.



43. Freshwater Sting-Rays of the Ganges.

By B. L. CHAUDHURI, B.A., B.Sc.

In the Memoirs of the Indian Museum, Vol. III, No. I, Dr. Annandale, while describing a marine representative of the species Trygon fluviatilis (H.B.), reserved further remarks for a future occasion. He also exhibited full-grown specimens from fresh water of the same species and embryos of another freshwater sting-ray at the ordinary meeting of the Asiatic Society of Bengal held on 6th July, 1910 (Proc. As. Soc. Beng., Vol. IV, No. 7, 1910, p. exxiv). But owing to other pressing work Dr. Annandale is unable to take up the matter for the present, and, to avoid delay, it is thought desirable that I should draw up an additional note on the subject as I had some personal share in the investigation which took place in 1910.

Considerable doubt has existed as to the species of stingrays that inhabit fresh water in India. These rays were first noticed in the Ganges by Hamilton (Buchanan), who was, not unnaturally, a good deal surprised to find them as high up as Bhagalpur. He was engaged in an elaborate statistical and economic survey of some Bengal districts from 1807 to 1814. After finishing his work in Rungpur, Dinajpur and Purneah he arrived at Bhagalpur in the beginning of the rainy season of 1810. It is in his notes on the fishes of the district of Bhagalpur that he first mentions freshwater rays. Bhagalpur he proceeded up to Behar, Patna, and Shahabad, at each of which places he noticed the rays. In 1813 he went up the river via Allahabad to Agra and came back to Gorakhpur. During this journey also he found rays as far up as Cawnpur. In his "Account of the Fishes of the Ganges," which was published in 1822, he names two species:—(1) Raia fluviatilis and (2) Raia sancur. Of the first he could not give any description beyond stating that it resembled Raia lymma, and he explained his inability to furnish a description by saying: "I always deferred taking a description until I had an opportunity of having it drawn, and that opportunity never occurred. I cannot therefore give its specific characters." Thus only a name was left, without any description or drawing, and it is no wonder that in later times, after various fanciful conjectures, the very existence of the species was doubted. the second species Buchanan gave a description, but as his drawing, unfinished as it was, had to be left in India, several mistakes naturally crept into the description.

In later days, when Hamilton's original drawings were discovered in the possession of the Asiatic Society of Bengal

and were more widely known, the British Museum, etc., having been supplied with copies, the unfinished and unnamed drawing No. 65 was taken by Francis Day to represent Raia fluviatilis, which was therefore thought to be identical with Trygon sephen of the British Museum Catalogue (Proc. As. Soc. Beng. 1871, p. 203), though many years before Edward Blyth correctly identified Raia cancur, H.B., as Trucon sephen (Forskäl) (Proc. As. Soc. Beng. of 1860, p. 37). The principal mistake made by Buchanan in the description of his Raia sancur was his statement that it lacked a "prickle on the tail." The spine is, however, conspicuously figured in drawing No. 65, and the omission must have been due to an insufficiency of notes. His statement that he had not seen R. sancur above where the tide reaches might have been due to inadvertence. This last statement, however, further misled Francis Day in causing him to conclude that none of the Batoidei were really freshwater species. He thought that all the cartilaginous fishes were marine, but that some went up the rivers in quest of prey and thus were caught in fresh water. In his "Freshwater Fish and Fisheries of India and Burma" (1873), p. 24, para. xlii, he says: "In the sub-class Chondropterygii, order Plageostomata, there are some species which ascend rivers for predaceous purposes." On the same page, a few lines later, he adds, "neither breed in the rivers." In the appendix to the same work (p. cccv, para. 430) he named only two "Trygons" which thus went up the river :- "Trygon narnak -Sakash uriya—ascends river often above tidal influence," and "Trygon sephen - this species is also frequently captured above the influence of the tide."

In 1877, however, in editing Hamilton's notes on fish and fisheries for Hunter's Statistical Account of Bengal, Day tacitly corrected his mistake about drawing No. 65 and recognized it as a figure of Hamilton's Raia sancur (Statistical Account of Bengal, Vol. XX, p. 73). In his Fishes of India, which came out in 1878, the name Raia sancur, H.B., occurs as a synonym of Trygon sephen, but the fish's power of adapting itself to fresh water is not recorded. Indeed, in this work, Day threw considerable doubt on to the existence of Raia fluviatilis, H.B., by including its name, with a note of interrogation prefixed, in the synonymy of Trygon walga.² This is a small fish and cannot be Raia fluviatilis,

¹ This "Trygon narnak" is in all probability Trygon gerrard, which has been often confounded by Day with T. Uarnak. (See Annandale, Mem. Ind. Mus., Vol. II, No. I, pp. 24 and 25.) T. gerrardi is often noticed in estuaries and is captured in the rivers of Orissa within tidal influence, but this fact has no bearing on the question of Hamilton's freshwater sting-rays.

² Trygon walga has been sunk by Annandale as a synonym of Trygon imbricata. (Mem. Ind. Mus., Vol. II, No. I, p. 32.)

(H.B.), because *Raia fluviatilis* is stated by him to be a bigger fish than *Raia sancur*, which, by his own measurements, is 3 feet in diameter.

In the volume in the Fauna of British India, which came out in 1889, none of the Trygons are stated to have freshwater representatives, though some are said to approach shore during the monsoons. Moreover, although another Batoid (Pristis perroleti) has been included by Boulenger in the Catalogue of the Freshwater Fishes of Africa, (1909), no reference is made to the existence of any Trygon in the rivers of that continent. When, therefore, a large number of stingrays were met with at Buxar, Patna, Rajmehal, Bhagalpur and other places far above tidal influence, it became evident that the existing information about them was extremely defective. At the instance of the Superintendent of the Museum a systematic investigation was instituted and Rajmehal, Manihari Ghat and Bhagalpur were visited. As only mutilated specimens were as a rule to be had in these places, considerable difficulty had to be encountered in order to secure unmutilated live specimens, which established beyond doubt the occurrence of two species of freshwater stingrays. The fish-dealers of the above places, who only deal in mutilated and cut-up fish, recognize only one kind of ray, the local name for which is Sankach (or Sankchi)in Santali Sankar1; but the actual fishermen (Banpars) distinguish two distinct kinds, both growing to a large size. The larger of the two is described as flat and thin, while the other is distinguished as high and deep. The flat species is termed by the Banpars of Bhagalpur pátál máriá (or patter at Rajmehal), whereas the high and deep species is named metia at Bhagalpur and telia at Rajmehal. The name pátál máriá indicates the habit of the bigger and flatter species, which prefers the deeper part of the river-and thus, being difficult to catch, is the rarer of the two. The name metia means earthy, probably having reference to the dull brown colour of the dorsal surface of the fish. In February, 1910, two adult males of the smaller species were caught by hook and line near Udhua nalla, only a few miles beyond Rajmehal, and a full-grown feetus of the same species, cut out of its mother, was secured at Rajmehal. In June two full-grown specimens, male and female, were caught by hook and line in the bed of the Ganges below Bararighat near Bhagalpur. This smaller species is undoubtedly Hypolophus sephen (Forskäl), which is identical with the Raia sancur of Hamilton. The

l All these names are derived from the Sanskrit name Sankar, which means mongrel, and the fishes are probably so called because of a fancied resemblance to tortoises, the rays being supposed to be mongrels between fish and tortoises.

discovery of a feetus proves finally that this fish not only lives in fresh water very high up above tidal influence but also breeds in fresh water—a fact which was denied by Francis Day and used to be doubted by many others.

The bigger species (specimens of which were caught in the bed of the Ganges below Bararighat near Bhagalpur) may now be recognized as Trygon fluviatilis, in consequence of this form being the larger of the two freshwater species alluded to by Buchanan, and having the tail without a hanging fold of skin, but provided with spines. T. fluviatilis occurs also in the sea, specimens having been taken by the "Golden Crown" in the Bay of Bengal. The marine specimens were received deprived of their tails, but their shape and measurements at once singled them out as belonging to a hitherto undescribed species. Though Hamilton did not provide either drawings or descriptions, there is no room for doubt that this is the species which he named Raia fluviatilis.

The following measurements will show how closely a freshwater specimen resembles a marine one in all important proportions. The tail of the former is nearly one and a half times as long as the length of the disk. The measurements quoted are from the specimen from Bhagalpur (which has been mounted [F **\frac{1}{2}\to], and of the marine specimen [F *\frac{1}{2}\to], of which the skin has been preserved in spirit. In both cases the measurements were taken on the fresh specimen:—

		Specimen from the Bay of Bengal.	Specimen from fresh water.
		cm.	cm.
Breadth of disk		138.75	126.25
Length of disk		135.0	120.0
Breadth between eyes	• •	20.0	16.0
Length of snout	••	50.0	~43·12 5
Breadth of mouth		12.5	11.25
Length from mouth to v	ent	83 ·75	78.75
Length of tail		Wanting	$176 \cdot 25$

T. fluviatilis also breeds freely in fresh water, for young

ones are caught in the nets in August.

The adults of both species are most frequently caught by line, the bait being either a bivalve (Novaculina gangetica, Bens., var. theoboldi, Bens.) or, more frequently, a small freshwater eel (suspected to be a new species) locally called Andharia Sâp and Andharia Machhi; both animals being found in numbers in the mud of the bed of the Ganges. Trygon fluviatilis is captured in largest numbers in November (i.e., soon after the subsidence of the floods) and in May, when the

river falls down to its lowest level. The seasonal variation in the numbers caught in this case does not indicate either the presence or absence of individuals in any particular locality or their migratory habit, but only shows that the mode of capture proves more successful at certain seasons.

In the Ganges we have therefore freshwater representatives of at least two species of Batoidei, viz., Trygon fluviatilis (H.B.) and Hypolophus sephen (Forskäl). These species are not only found one thousand miles above tidal influence, but

also breed freely in fresh water.

44. Note on the Dark Monday Somavati.

By RAI B. A. GUPTE, BAHADUR.

Somavati is the name of the Monday on which a dark night or amāvāsya falls. It is observed as a fast. The story begins thus:—

While Bhishma the old grand-uncle of the Pandavas was laid up on his death-bed, he was interrogated by Dharma, the eldest of the Pandavas. He said, "O sir, the principal chiefs of the Kaurava force have been destroyed by my brother Bhima, and others by Arjun. Through the wickedness of Duryodhan our family has been reduced in number. Excepting old people and young children there remain no kings on earth. In the great family of Bharat we five brothers alone survive, and therefore the Empire of which I have just become the Ruler does not give me any pleasure. While alive, one has to bear nothing but blame, and even after death, there is no salvation in store. I feel depressed at seeing the wholesale massacre of the family to which I have the honour to belong. Ashvaththāma has through his enchanted weapons (astra) killed even the fœtus Princess Uttara bears. I am therefore doubly grieved at the prospective extinction of the race. O grand-uncle! What can I do? What will grant me long-lived sons ? ''

Bhishma replied, "Listen, O King! I shall describe that Vrat which will grant long-lived progeny. O Dharma! on a dark night falling on a Monday, one should go to an ashvatha tree (Ficus religiosa) and there worship Janārdan (Vishnu). He should offer to God 108 jewels, or coins, or fruits, and go round the tree as many times (108). This Vrat is much appreciated by Vishnu. Let Uttarā your brother's daughter-in-law perform this Puja, and her fœtus will regain life. That child, when born, will be virtuous and reputed."

Dharma said, "Pray describe in detail this king of all Vratas. Pray tell me who introduced it first, and how it

became known on earth."

Bhishma replied, "There is a celebrated city called Kānti. All the Brahmans, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas and Shudras of that city are pious. It contains beautiful palaces, and well-dressed men, and women. It is a lovely place. It also contains many good-looking and intelligent dancing girls. It is as rich as Alakā the capital of Kuber, the Treasurer of the Gods, and

¹ It is taken from the Bhavishottar Puran.

as beautiful as Amaravati the capital of Indra. It is as brilliant as Mahāpuri the capital of Agni, the God of Fire. It is full of gems. Over this city there once ruled King Ratnasen. There lived in it during his reign a Brahman named Devaswami. He had a virtuous wife named Dhanavati. She was as rich as Goddess Laxmi. She gave birth to seven well-behaved sons and one beautiful daughter named Gunavati. The sons were married. The girl was waiting to be married. At this juncture there came to his house a Brahman guest. He was a bright young man. He came to the door and poured out blessings. The seven daughters-in-law of Devaswami, after paying their obeisance to him offered him alms. He conferred on each the blessing of life-long matrimonial felicity (Saubhāgya). Dhanavati then addressed the Brahman and said, 'O Sacred Brahman! pray listen to me. When my daughters-inlaw bowed unto you, you conferred on them such blessings as would grant happiness, sons, and long marital life, but when my daughter bowed down her head you merely said, "Be pious." Pray enlighten me as to why you differentiated thus.' The Brahman Saint replied, 'Listen, O Dhanavati! you are a devoted and pious lady. You have gained good reputation. I have conferred on your daughter the most appropriate blessing because, while performing the Saptapadi in her marriage, she is fated to become a widow. Let her live a saintly life.' Dhanavati became alarmed at this pronouncement, she repeatedly bowed unto him and begged, 'O Brahman! if you know how to counteract the impending calamity, pray describe it to me. O Ocean of Mercy! What can I do if there be no remedy?' The Brahman replied, 'If you can induce Somā to come to your house, her presence would evade the destiny of widowhood that hangs over your daughter's head.'

Dhanavati said: 'Who is this Somā, of what caste is she? Where does she live? Pray tell me at once, there is no time to lose.' The Brahman said: 'Somā is a Dhobi woman by caste. She lives in Ceylon. If she comes to your abode,

there is hope.'

Saying so the Brahman disappeared. Dhanavati then addressed her sons and said that their dear little sister was in danger. He who had respect for his father and mother would start at once for Ceylon to bring Somā here. Her sons said that she had always been thinking of her daugher alone, and only of her welfare. She always loved her more than her sons, and that was why she had been forcing them to go to a country too difficult to travel to, to a country situated in the midst of an ocean! It was impossible to go there. They were unable to do so. When their father Devaswāmi heard this, he said that in spite of the fact that he was the father of seven sons he had to count himself a man without male issue! He would

himself go to Ceylon, and bring Somā who could save his daughter from the impending danger.

At these angry words, his youngest son Shivaswāmi rose and said most reverently: 'O father, do not be so angry. As long as I am alive, who else has the courage to undertake

the voyage?'

He then bowed unto his father and started forthwith with He reached the sea. He was thinking of swimming across the great ocean, but a large tree attracted his attention. In its hollow the young ones of a vulture were perching. The brother and sister rested under that umbrageous tree for the They saw the vulture returning to its young with some food for them. It offered it to them but they would not take it. It asked them the reason, and they said that it was inhospitable to do so while two travellers were starving under the tree. The vulture turned towards the pilgrims and asked them to name their desire. One of them, the brother, replied that they wanted to cross the ocean to prevent his sister from becoming a widow. The vulture promised to take them-to. the island the next morning, and did so. They went to Soma's house and swept and mud-washed the frontage [of her house] every morning for a year. Seeing this Soma enquired of her sons and daughters in-law as to which of them was so dutiful. They denied all knowledge. Some therefore carefully watched the place one early morning and discovered that a Brahman girl was sweeping, and her dutiful brother mud-washing the open space in front of her house. She asked them who they were, and when they told her that they were the children of a Brahman, she expressed her horror at seeing those sacred people doing such menial work for her-a low caste woman. She cried. 'O Brahman! The daughter of the impure washerman's caste that I am, what makes you do a thing that will hurl me down to hell?' Shiyaswami replied: 'This, madam. is my unmarried sister. She is destined to become a widow while performing the Saptapadi or fire worship in her own marriage. But I am assured that the evil can be evaded through your kindness, and therefore we have volunteered to serve you as menials.' Soma told them to desist. She said: I will obey you O sacred Brahman! and accompany you to your house.' She then addressed her daughters-in-law and told them to preserve the body of any one that may die in her Raj, during her absence. No one should, on any account, be cremated. She took the Brahman pilgrims across the ocean, through the sky, and reached Käntipur in the twinkling of an eye.

Dhanavati the Brahman woman was delighted. She worshipped the Dhobi woman. Shivaswāmi the dutiful son left for Ujjein in search of a suitable husband for his sister, selected Rudra and brought him down. Somā the washer-

woman made all preparations for the marriage. During the festivities the bridegroom died as soon as he commenced the Saptapadi. All the relations began lamenting the loss! Somā alone was calm. She stood erect and, in the midst of the wailings, held the sacrificial cup in her hand, and gave away to the girl her own credit for having worshipped the Vrat Raj or King of Vratas! Wonder of wonders! The dead man was brought to life! Somā the washerwoman returned home. She learnt that the giving away of the merit of her worship of the Vrat-Raj caused the deaths of all her sons, her husband, and even her son-in-law. Fortunately for her a Dark Monday, Somavati, befell while she was returning That Somavati the life-giving Puja! On that day she met an old woman carrying a load of cotton. She was groaning under the weight she had to carry. Soma asked her what the contents of the baggage were. Its nature was explained to her, and she was asked to help the woman to put it down. Somā could not comply with the request as the touch of cotton was proscribed on a Dark Monday. Somā, next, met a woman carrying a load of radishes. In this case also she could not touch the vegetable. Somā then went to an ashvath (Ficus religiosa) tree that stood on the bank of a river. bathed herself and worshipped the tree. She then took some sand in her hand, and went round the tree 108 times. soon as she performed the 108 peregrinations her lost husband, her sons, and her son in-law came to life again! The city and her house teemed with wealth. When Soma reached home, she was glad to see her own son-in-law come to life again. Her daughters-in-law enquired how all the male members came to life again. Soma replied that when she parted with the accumulated credit of the worship all of them died, but as soon as she refused to touch either cotton or radishes on the first Dark Monday after the event, and performed the Vrata, they came to life again. Ashvath (Ficus religiosa) is the abode of Vishnu the Protector. If he be worshipped on that day there shall be no widowhood in the family. Every woman will be blessed with happy married life. She then made her daughters in-law follow her footsteps as regards the Vrata. lived a long and happy life, and in the end reached Vaikunth, the Heaven of Vishnu." "I have," said Bhishma, "thus described this Vrata for your benefit."

Dharma asked Bhishma to describe it more fully and was told that on the Dark-Monday the worshipper should rise very early and bathe herself in the river or in the sea, should wear a silk dress, should observe silence, should go to the religious fig tree, should worship the tree in the usual way, should meditate on the power of the All-pervading, visible and invisible Creator, Protector, and Destroyer, the Origin, Centre, and End for the universe.

The following is the mantra of the puja:-

"At thy root lives Brahma, in the stem lives Vishnu, and

at the top lives Shiva, I bow unto thee O Ashvath."

"Flowers and fruits of sorts should be offered to the sacred tree." The next prayer is, "O Ashvath, thou the abode of Agnithe God of fire and the asylum of Vishnu, I bow unto thee."

"Then the 108 perambulations should be performed. The offerings should consist of pearls, gold, diamonds, and other jewels, copper and brass, and pots full of food stuffs. All the white coins and other offerings placed before the tree should then be handed over to the Brahman preceptor. In order to please Somā a married Brahman woman should be worshipped under the tree. Brahmans should be fed well. Finally, the devotee should take her meal observing silence all the while."

"Oh King! Ask Draupadi, Subhadrā and Uttarā to observe this Vrata. It will result in the fœtus of Uttara re-

gaining life."

But, out of consideration for the poor, Dharma enquired, how could people without means perform such a costly Puja?

Bhishma said that by offering fruits, flowers, food, clothes

and whatever one can afford.

"O King!" entreated Bhishma, "do perform the Vrata

as quickly as possible!"

Dissertations on the Dhobi.—The Social position of a Dhobi is given in the following couplet:

Rajak-scharma-karasyu

रजक समीकारस।

Nato Barud-evacha

नटो बर्ड एवच,

Kaivartā Med-Bhillāshch

कैवर्भ मेद्भिद्धाच,

Saptaite chānyantjah smritah 1

सप्तेते कान्यनः स्म्रता ॥

[Yama Samhita] in Shabda Kalpadruma, vol 1, p. 55.

The Dhobi is untouchably classed with Chamārs, Nats, (Doms), Baruds, Kaivartas, Meds, and Bhils. That a woman of this caste, even if pious, was worshipped by a high-class Brahman woman, shows the elevation of the depressed classes under certain conditions.

On the sanctity of the tree.

The origin of the sanctity 'attributed to the Ashvath tree seems to have been recorded in this Pothi. It shows that in primitive days, when there were no lucifer matches or flints invented, fire was made by friction of dried wood. Pimpal or Pipal was then used for that purpose along with Shami (Prosopis specigera) and Udumbar (Ficus glomerata). The Namdubri Brahmans of the Malabar Coast still make fire with pieces of the wood of the Pipal and Jackfruit trees. The maternal grandfather of the writer of this note died in London in 1861, and as his body could not be brought to India for cremation, an effigy made of flour had to be cremated in the course of the obsequies. The fire made at that time had to be produced from friction of the dry branches of the Pipal and the Shami trees. This use possibly accounts for the origin of the sanctity of this tree.

On Sanitary motives.

The Ashvath produces fire, fire is a purifier, it is indispensable in a Dhobi's house. The Dhobi or washerman washed away all disease-germs from dirty linen, and therefore the presence (or services) of a Dhobi woman in a Brahman family secured cleanliness and ensured longivity. When there was no coinage, when services had to be exchanged, the Brahman was perhaps obliged to render some kind of service in exchange for the work done by the washerman. It may be, therefore, that this story records that early exchange of labour or mutual co-operation.

On the name of the Vrata.

Somā means the Moon, Monday is sacred to that luminary, and a dark night sacred to it must have been considered inauspicious like the day of an eclipse. The fast and the prohibition against touching cotton or radishes—both white—may have been designed to intensify the feeling of the loss of the white moon. Somā, again, is said to be the name of the Dhobi woman, and it is natural that the dark night on which she fasted was called after her because she was black and untouchable! The mention of Ceylon, which is near Madras, and the names Devaswāmi and Shivaswāmi signify that the story was written in that Presidency, where Swāmi is a usual affix,—not in use in other Provinces.

For sanctity see Cyclopædia of India. By E. Balfour, vol. II,
 p. 138, second edition.
 Journal of the Royal Society of Arts, vol. 57, p. 422, April 1909.

SEPTEMBER, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 6th September, 1911, at 9-15 p.m.

LIEUTENANT-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT, F.A.S.B., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Maulavi Abdul Wali, Mr. A. C. Atkinson, Mr. Percy Brown, Mr. I. H. Burkill, Dr. L. L. Fermor, Mr. F. H. Gravely, Mr. K. A. K. Hallowes, Mr. H. H. Hayden, Mr. D. Hooper, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J.; Mr. W. Kirkpatrick, Dr. Indumadhab Mallick, Hon. Dr. A. Suhrawardy, Mr. G. Thorpe, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana.

Visitors:—Mr. W. R. C. Brierly, Mrs. Fermor, Mrs. Kirkpatrick, Dr. and Mrs. L. Scherman.

The Minutes of the last Meeting were read and confirmed.

Twenty-nine presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported the death of Mr. Harinath De, an Ordinary Member of the Society.

The Hon Dr. A. al-Mamun Suhrawardy read the following obituary notice of Mr. Harinath De:—

Harinath De was born on 12th August 1877. His father, Rai Bahadur Bhutnath De. was a distinguished pleader in the Central Provinces. Harinath De had a remarkable university career. He was almost invariably in the first class in all his examinations, in India or in Europe. He was the recipient of many medals, prizes and scholarships. He passed his Entrance and F.A. examinations from St. Xavier's College. securing the Duff Scholarship for languages. Graduating in 1896 he obtained first-class honours in English and Latin. same year he obtained his M.A. degree in Latin. He also passed the special M.A. examination in Greek. As a result of his achievements he was awarded the Government of India State Scholarship of £200 per annum for four years. With this assistance he went to Cambridge in 1897 where he passed the Classical and Medieval and Modern Languages Triposes in the first and second class. Later he obtained the Skeats prize and the Chancellor's Gold Medal for classical verse. While in Europe he studied at the Universities of the Sorbonne, Marbourg and elsewhere, acquiring that mastery over

European and Asiatic languages for which he was so well known. In 1901 he was appointed to the Imperial Educational Service and returned to India as Professor at Dacca. After serving for some time as Professor of the Presidency College and Principal of the Hooghly College, in 1907 he was appointed Librarian of the Imperial Library. He died on the 30th August 1911.

He became a member of the Asiatic Society on the 3rd of June 1903, and served on the Council and Philological Committee. He published various articles in the Journal and Memoirs of the Society, and at the time of his death was

engaged in editing works for the Bibliotheca Indica.

The General Secretary also reported that Lieut.-Col. John Lloyd Jones, I.M.S.; Mr. E. F. Abraham, I.C.S.; Capt. B. C. Penton, I.A.; Capt. J. Morrison, I.M.S., and Lieut.-Col. J. Jordon, I.M.S., had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

Dr. A. Engler, Lieut.-Col. A. W. Alcock, Sir Clements Markham, Professor E. G. Browne and Mahamahopadhyava Kamakhya Nath Tarkabagis were balloted for and elected Honorary Fellows.

The following two gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members :-

Sri Rajah Ankitam Venkata Juggarow Bahadoor Garoo, F.R.A.S., F.R. Met. Soc., Zemindar of Shermohamadpuram, Dabagardens, Vizagapatam, proposed by Mr. G. H. Tipper. seconded by Dr. N. Annandale; Nawab Murtaza Husain Khan (Oudh ex-Royal Family), Vakil and Zemindar, Katra abo Torab Khan, Lucknow, proposed by Prof. M. Hedayet Hosain, seconded by Babu Nilmoni Chakravarti.

The following papers were read:

Exogamous septs of the Gehara Section of Kunchbandiya (Kanjars). By W. KIRKPATRICK.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

2. A hundred Modern Arabic Proverbs. By CAPT. C. C. R. MURPHY, 30th Punjabis.

This paper has been published in the August Journal.

- 3. Dinajpur Pillar Inscription. By RAMA PRABAD CHANDA. Communicated by the Hon. Mr. JUSTICE ASUTOSH MUKHOPADHYAYA.
- 4. Some Notes relating to the Classification. Habits and Nidification of the Ravens of India. By Dr. P. T. L. Dods. WORTH. Communicated by the Natural History Secretary.

n collowing abstract is published:-

The author maintains that the Panjab Raven is distinct exolder from the Himalayan Raven to be regarded as a distinct species, and should not be united with it into the Corvus of an of Linneus. Hume recorded the Plains Raven as different in the sheen of the plumage, and Oates noted it as different in the character and shape of the throat lisckles. It is a smaller bird:—

TO STUME	I MILCO		٠,٠	•	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
		-3		nalayan Raven.	Plains Re	yen.
Length	् क	***	* 1	25.5"-28"	23.75"-24	A75"
Tail		• •		17.25"-19.3"	16.3 - 17	.4"
		• •	• •	10.75"—11.5"	9.5"	*
Bill from gape		••	• •	2.85"- 3.25*	2.8″ *	AP.
Bill straight fr			• •	3.05"— 3.18"	2.69" 2	. 82"
Height of teles	ed mandik	les	• •	1.1" 1.3"	15"	
Tarsus	÷	• •	• •	2.5" 3"	2.3″	45
Weight, male				2 lb. 11 ozs.	2 lb. to 2 lb. 2	ozs.

Oater attributed this disparity to climatic influences. He says the immense size of the Himalayan birds is due to their being dwellers "in a cold, bracing climate," whereas the Plains Ravens—"dwellers in an enervating tropical atmosphere"—have dwindled down to a small size as compared with the former. If correctly, then how can the contrary difference observed in the jungle crow be explained? For, in the case of the jungle crow (Corvus macrorhynchus), individuals from the North Western Himalaya are actually smaller than those from Southern Hindustan and Burma.

It can hardly be that the Himalayan Raven is better fed than the Plains Raven. Bower remarked in his "Across Tibet" that it was hard to know on what they ordinarily lived. They came about his camps; "and are not shy birds," as Oates says. The author has collected the evidence of several

travellers to their boldness.

There is a need for extended observations on the Himalayan Rauen—(i) to what extent does it show a slight seasonal migration? (ii) when does it nest?—Mandelli took the eggs in Native Sikkim ligh up towards the snows on March 5th. Stoliczka noted the bird building on May 4th at Aktash: and Walton found young on the ledge of a rock near the Kala Tso Lake in Thet on April 6th; (iii) does it habitually nest on cliffs? and (iv) in successive years on the same site? (v) what is the number of eggs? (vi) do both birds share in hatching them? and (vii) how long do the young stay in the nest?

The author adds some observations on the nidification of the Plains Raven. Five is the usual number of eggs: they lay from January to first half of March, but most eggs are to be taken in February: the eggs vary in length from 1.71" to 2.26", and in breadth from 1.22" to 1.39", the nest is built 18—24 feet from the ground of sticks, lined with rags, sheep's wool.

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bits of paper, cow's hair and grass. Various trees graving to open, cultivated land are chosen such as Acacia leucopsiese, Dalbergia: Sissoo and Albergia Lebbek. When feeding these Plains Ravens are sociable, but in the breeding season they seem to scatter, and probably many cross into Afghanistan.

- 5. Akbar's Court-wit and hie Jest-book, By QASIM HASIR, This paper will not be published in the Society's Journal.
- 8. Shan and Palaung Jew's Harps from the Northern States.

 By J. Coggin Brown.
- 7. Historical Poem by the Emperor Shah Alam M. Translated by HIDAYET HUSAIN.
- 8. New and Revised Species of Gramineae from Bombay. By R. K. Bhide, Assistant Economic Botanist, Bombay. Communicated by Major A. T. Gage, I.M.S.
- 9. Corchorus capsularis var. oocarpus, a new variety of the common Jute plant. By I. H. Burkill and R. S. Finlow.
- 10. The Polarity of the Bulbils of Dioscorea bulbifera, Linn. By I. H. BURKILL.

These four papers have been published in the August Journal.

11. Further spreading of Croton sparsiflorus (Morana). By I. H. BURKILL.

Mr. Burkill remarked as follows :-

Croton sparsiflorus has now reached the railway yard at Narayanganj; and it has appeared on the line side at the following stations between Chittagong and Lunding: Kalama, Latu, Karimganj, Bhanga (one plant in this year), Damcherra (one plant only in this year), Harangajao and Haflong (in quantity). For its distribution as known in 1908 and 1909 reference may be made to the Society's Journal, 1908, p. 205, and the Society's Proceedings, 1910, p. ci. Narayanganj (which, judging by the number of individual plants present, it reached in 1909) is likely to furnish a centre for its dispersal through the Districts of Dacca and Mymensingh, by means of seeds adhering to the gunny wrappings of merchandise through the railway.

12. "Fasher H. Monserrate's account of Akbar, 26th Nov. 1582." By Rev. H. Hesten, S.J.

This paper will be published in a subequent number of the Journal.



LISUS PLAYING JEW'S HARP AND FLUTE.
SEE, J. COGGIN BROWN, J. A. S. B. VOL, VI. NO. II.
(PHOTO, BY MRS SCHERMAN, MUNICH,)



IMAGE OF BODHISATHVA.



IMAGE OF BUDDHA.

45. The Ruba'iyat of Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr.

(No. II.)

Edited by MAULAVI 'ABDU'L WALL.

In a late issue of this Journal (Vol. V, No. 11 [N.S.], for December, 1909, pp. 421—456) I published 228 Quatrains of Shaykh Abu Sa'id ibn 'Abu'l Khayr from the only manuscript of the Society, No. 1398 old (62 O(a) new). With a few exceptions, all the Rubā'iyāt were correctly published from sources noted

in the preface

After the publication of those verses Mr. H. Beveridge, C.S. (Retd.), informed me of the existence, in the British Museum, of a copy of the Quatrains of the saint. At my request Mr. Beveridge was kind enough, with the permission of the Museum authorities, to send me a transcript of the Quatrains made by a Persian medical student now residing in London. The British Museum MS. Add. 7822 is noted in Rieu's Catalogue, Vol. II, page 738b. This MS. and the Rubā'lyāt of Saḥābi, Mahvi of Ardabīl and of Bābā Afzal-i-Kāshì are bound in the same volume. The MS. of Abu Sa'īd's Quatrains was written in A.H. 1065 (A.D. 1653).

I have compared these Quatrains with those published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. Like the Society's MS., the British Museum MS. includes many well-known Quatrains commonly ascribed to others. The B.M. collection contains here and there certain words and phrases which primâ facie are inaccurate. These I have removed as far as possible by collating with certain biographies of the saint. A few Quatrains are common in both the MSS. and the rest are new or not quite similar. I have arranged the latter alphabetically according to the last letter of the distiches and have numbered them consecutively, commencing from No. 229, as the previous edition of the Quatrains ended with No. 228.

Twenty-two of the Quatrains are common or almost similar in both, and they have been excluded from the present text. The following Rubā'iyāt already published in the Journal, A.S.B., are also to be found in the British Museum Codex, Nos. 17, 25, 28, 32, 45, 58, 65, 69, 70, 83, 120, 122 123, 146, 161, 168, 176, 190, 193, 197, 207, 212. Of these Quatrains

A few Qat'as and Quatrains written on the margin of the MS.

have also been excluded.

No. 65 occurs twice in the B.M. Collection. In the first line of it the word عيواك is wrongly copied as

In some of the other Quatrains minor variations occur, excluding such variations as the same scribe would commit if he were to write the same verse or passage more than once, e.g. اين and اين etc. I need only mention the following variants:

The British Museum MS. is indicated by B.M., and the Asiatic Society of Bengal's MS. as already published in the Journal for 1909 by A.S.

Quatrain 17 of A.S., line 2, runs as-شیرین سخنی که شهد در شکر اوسم

In B.M. it occurs as

شیرین دهنی که شهد در پیکر اوست

the B.M. سو تا سو تا سو تا سو تا سو الله the B.M. has بندر همة ; in the second line for بود in A.S. the B.M. has in the fourth line B.M. has فهت for مُهش in A.S.

ننكى . جنكى - سنكى - سنكى Quatrain 69 of A.S. text has for qāfiyās but B.M. has ماری - کاری - کاری It appears that the disciples of the Shaykh in committing the following two quatrains into memory mixed up the words and qāfiyās of one Rubā'i with those of the other; or it may be that the Shaykh himself used different rhymes on different occasions.

They are copied below for the purpose of comparison.

No. 25, A.S.

سر تا سر دشت خاوران سفگی نیست کر خون دل و دیده برو رنگی نیست در هیچ زمین و هیچ فرسنگی نیست کردست میش نشسته دلتنگی نیست

اندر همه دشت خاوران سلكي نيست كا خون دل و ديدة دراو رنگي بيست در هیچ زمین و هیچ فرسفگی نیست کر دست غبت نشسته دلتنگی نیست No. 69, A.S.

الدر همه دشت خاوران سلكي بيست كش با من و روزكار من جدكي نيست با لطسف و نوازي ومسال تو موا ، در دادي صد هزار بهان ننگى نيست Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'iyāt of Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr. 639
[N.S.]

B.M.

اندر همه دشت خاوران خاری نیست کش با من و روزگار من کاری نیست با لطف و نوازش وصال تو مرا

In Professor Valentine Zhukovski's edition of the Asrār'ut Tauhid fi Maqāmat'ish Shaykh Abi Sa'id the latter Quatrain is the same as in the B.M. Manuscript; only the former has. اندر همه دشت for جانا بزمین of the latter.

... Quatrain 32. Lines 1 and 2 in A.S. edition run thus :-- از كفر سرِ زلفِ وى ايمان ميريخت و.گوش و لبش چشمهٔ حيوان ميريخت

The words گرش و لب in A.S.'s text is meaningless: of. No. 49 A.S.

میرفت for میرفت و زخاکِ مقدمش جان میویخت for میرفت بان میربخت in A.S.

Quatrain 45. Is. 1 and 2 in A.S. run thus:—

از گل طبقی نهاده کین روی منست وزهشک خطی کشیده کین موی منست

B.M. has:—

گل بر طبقی نهاده کین روی منست بر شب گرهی فکاده کین موی منست The first line (with گل بر طبقی) is nice, but the second line (with بر شب گرهی فکاده) has a far-fetched meaning.

Quatrain 58. In lieu of l. 2 in A.S., B.M. has اى رازق رزق من وزق بغرست in the former B.M. has دلخسته and in l. 4 for رحمى in A.S., B.M. has لطفى

Quatrain 70. The B.M. has the Rubā'i in the form of a tarāna, thus:—

چشمی دارم همه پر از صورت دوست ایدیده مراخوش است چرن دوست درست

ز دیده و موشت فرق کردن له نکوست یا اوست بجای دیده یا دیده خود اوست

The Lubābu'l-Albāb of 'Aufi attributes this Rubā'i (as it occurs in B.M. MS. with the word ديدة for دوست in l. 2) to Rashidi of Samarqand.

Quatrain 83. B.M. has it thus-

Although both the texts convey almost the same sense, the difference in 1.2 is considerable.

Quatrain 120. In 1. 3 for شاد باش in A.S., B.M. has which has very little sense and is probably a clerical blunder. سهل باشد means "may be easy" but if read with the context may mean "'tis easy," but such an archaic use is uncommon.

Quatrain 123. This is ascribed to Shaykh Abu Yazid Bistāmi (died in 261 A.H.). In l.1 for عربة and عربة and برجمله خلق respectively. Also in. l. 2 for برجمله خلق in A.S., B.M. has پس و پیش علق بس

In the Haft Iqlim, where the Rubā'i is attributed to Shaykh Abu Yazīd Bistāmi, the words صادق الوق occur for مادق القول, used both in A.S. and B.M. MSS.

Quatrain 146. Apparently in l. 2 the word علمة is incorrectly copied in B.M. MS. for مبدة.

Quatrain 161. The last two lines in B.M. are written thus—

Quatrain 168. In 1.1 for دود in A.S., B.M. gives در [Note: In the Society's Edition an j is left out in print after در in 1.3.]

ير B.M. has مر Quatrain 190. In l. 2 for

. همه کس B.M. has دگران Quatrain 193. In l. 3 for

The former is rather preferable as the same word occurs twice, once in l. 3, and again in l. 4 in B.M.

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Quatrain 197. رسانی in B.M. for سقانی in A.S. is incorrect, and probably a clerical error.

Quatrain 207. The difference in B.M. is great. The Quatrain as written there is as follows:—

در کوی تو میدهند جانی بجسوی جانی چه بود که کاروانی بجسوی از مشق تو یک جو بجهانسی ارزد این چیست که مائیم جهانی بجوی

Quatrain 212. L. 2 in B.M. is rendered as آنوا چه کنم که نفسِ is put down for مسجود is put down for نماز 3.

I have done with the variations in the Rubā'iyāt that are common in both the collections, and have been excluded from

the present text.

In the Preface to the Rubā'īyāt, already published in the J.A.S.B. for 1909, I had stated my belief that owing to the absence of a complete text of the Rubā'iyāt no complete collection of the same was issued from the European Press. Since the above was written, I am convinced that neither the Quatrains already printed nor those now being printed can be said to be a complete collection of Shaykh Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr's verses. As a scholar and Süfi of great reputation, he had occasion to discourse on various topics, all leading to the mystic theme—the Doctrine of the Unity of Divine Being. In the course of his musings and communions with the Eternal Soul, and sermons to the selected circle of disciples, he used to improvise verses in Arabic as well as in his native Persian by way of illustration or emphasis. Sometimes he would utter a whole Tetrashich or ode, at another, only a distich or a hemistich. Not a poet who is judged by the number of his verses, but a poet of poets who would either utter his own or other's verses, appropriate to the theme of his discourse, to emphasize his inner thoughts regarding life, soul, and esoteric meanings of the holy-writs. The Asrar'ut Tauhid fi Magamati'sh Shaykh Abi Sa'id, and also the Halat o Sukhanan-i-Shaykh Abu Sa'id and other books have fortunately preserved for the student numerous instances of the Shaykh's utterances, which if carefully studied will give the inquirer an insight into the inner life of the man.

Such being the state of his verses, which I daresay he composed off-hand, not with a view to their publication to the world, it is rather fortunate that students of antiquities, now and then, come across a few Quatrains of the saint. Some students, some scholarly disciples, probably committed to memory, or noted in their bayāz or memoranda, such of the Quatrains or other verses of the saint that interested them. In this way, and in this way only, have these priceless pearls come down to posterity. But this mode of collection of the verses has many drawbacks.

- 1. The same verses are differently worded: One distich or hemistich of a Rubā'i in one collection is mixed up with that of another. Words and phrases have in the same way been changed and distorted by less intelligent scribes in the second, third, and subsequent copies.
- 2. In many instances, verses not specifically noted or prefixed by اَهُرَي fave been attributed to Shaykh Abu Sa'id, because they were so Abu Sa'id-like; though their authorship might be claimed by others.

The Diwāns of Sa'dī, Khusrau, and Jāmī; the Mathnavīs of Maulānā Jalal'u-d-Dīn Rumī, Farīd'u-d-Dīn 'Attār, Nizāmī of Ganja and others were probably collected during the lifetime of their authors. But the tetrastiches of Abu Sa'īd ibn Abu'l Khayr and many other saints, like those, I believe, of Khayyām of Nishāpūr, who was a philosopher and mathematician, stand in a different category. The more bulky is their collection of Quatrains the less genuine they are. Sprenger, in his Oude Catalogue, in noticing the Asiatic Society's copy of Abu Sa'īd's Rubā'īyāt, MS. No. 1398 (New No. O(a) 62), remarks that 'these of course are not all the Rubā'īyāt of the poet.' Such is also my opinion regarding a large number of the Quatrains, which I have traced out among the Rubā'īyāt of other writers.

The text of the Rubā'lyāt copied from the British Museum also contains verses attributed to other eminent personages.

Without making an attempt to determine the authorship of many of the Quatrains contained in the British Museum Codex ascribed to the Shaykh, I was rather puzzled to find some of them attributed to other writers. Unless any one of these Quatrains can be traced to a genuine old Diwān or Anthology of any poet, and unless also the evidence as to their being collected by or under the supervision of those writers has been fully gone into, we cannot positively say who were their real authors. When such a well-known Diwān as that of Hāfiz in the past, or of Hakim Q'ānī of our own time, may contain poems of others, it is to me a thankless task to search for the genuineness or otherwise of the Quatrains of Abu Sa'īd, who never wrote a word of which with his own pen, or of Khayyām-i-Nighapūrī, who had hardly time or inclination to collect his masterpieces.

The following among other Rubā'iyāt of the present text

are attributed to others :-

No. 289 is attributed to Shāh Sanjān Khāfi (d. 599 A.H.).

No. 295 is attributed to Khwāja Hasan of Qandahār.

No. 392 is attributed to Maulana Ya'qub Charkhi (9th century A.H.).

No. 368 is attributed to Shaykh Abu'l Hasan Khurqānī (died 425 a.h.) and also to 'Omar-i-Khayyām of Nishāpūr.
No. 314 is found in Jāmī exactly with a slight variation in

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l. 2 (چون صبح شود ز اشک ریزان مي باشی) which gives a better meaning. It is difficult to suggest who the real author of this Rubā'ī was.

It is a well-known fact that when a poet composes a good piece, there arises a host of imitators. There are really more imitators, in Persian, than original composers. Some of the imitations are so close, that it becomes difficult to say whether the particular verse is the original or an imitation.

'Imādī-i-Shahryārī's verses (died about 582 A.H.) noted below is apparently in imitation of Rubā'ī No. 358 of the text

and is indeed a beautiful imitation.

فویاد و فغان زین فاک آبیند گون کرخاک بچرخ بو کشد مشتی دون ما منتظران روزگاریدم کندون تا خود فلک از پرده چه آرد بیرون

C/. Khayyām's Rubā'ı noted below with No. 282 of the text. The imitation is so close, that it cannot be definitely stated if it is an imitation or the same stanza with variations.

قومی زگزاف در غرور افتادند قومی زپی حور و قصور افقادند معلسوم شود چوپردهسا بردارند کر کسوی قسو دور دور افتسادند

Tāju'd-Dīn Ismā'īl Bākharzi's Quatrain quoted by 'Aufi in the Lubabu'-l-Albāb is the same as No. 375 of the text, the only variation being in the first line.

Amīr Fakhru'd-Dín Mas'ūd Kirmānī's Rubā'ī on the same strain is as under—

ای برتن من نهاده باری غم تو وی در دل من فگفده ناری غم تو گفتی که مگر غم منت چونین کرد اری غسم تو

Cf. Shihābu'd-Dîn Ādīb-i-Ṣābir's Rubā'ī (d. 540 A.H.) quoted below with No. 311 of the text—

چندان ز فراق در زیانم که مهرس چندان ز غمت بسوخت جانم که مهرس چندان بگریست دیدگانم که مهرس گفتی که چگـــونگ چنانم که مهرس

Āfzalu'd-Din-un-Nābiqī's Quatrain is too close an imitation to Quatrain No. 306 of the text, and is not very interesting.

ای در سر هو کسی ز سودای تو شور ازدیک تو مفلس و توانگو همه عور خود با همه در حضور و چشم همه کور خود با همه در حضور و چشم همه کور

The following enchanting Rubā'is by Sa'dı and Jāmī (although the former's qafiyas are different) are: on the strain of Quatrain No. 355 of the text.

Abu Sa'id.

از باده بروی شیسنخ رفک آوردن ناقسوس بکعبه در درنگ آوردن اسسلام بجسانبِ فونگ آوردن بقوان د نقوان توا بیخنسگ آوردن

Sa'dī.

مه را ز فلک بطرف بام آوردن وز روم کلیسیا بشام آوردن در وقت سعد نماز شام آوردن بنوان - نقدوان ترا بدام آوردن

Jāmi.

سرخي زرخ لعسل بسنگ آوردن وزگُل بگيالا نوي و رنگ آوردن مقصود دل از کام نهنگ آوردن بتوان - نتوان نوا بچاگ آوردن

TRANSLATION.

I.

To flush with wine the cheek of the Saint;
To introduce the Church-bell, after delay, unto the Ka'ba;
To import Islām towards the lands of the Franks
Are possible—but 'tis not possible to have Thee unto the grasp.

II.

To bring down the Moon from the Heaven towards the turret;

And to transfer the Christian Church from Rome to Asia-Minor;

To celebrate at the time of morn the evening Service Are possible—but 'tis not possible to entrap Thee.

III.

To transfer the red colour from the face of the gem to the stone;

And to impart hue and fragrance from the rose to the grass;

To have the heart's desire attained from the jaw of the crocodile

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Are possible—but 'tis not possible to have Thee unto the grasp.

In the first stanza Abu Sa'id says that it is more possible to introduce the Church-bell—a sign of Christianity—for adan (call for prayer)—a sign of Muslim prayer—to Mecca; or to introduce the tenets of Islam to Europe, than to attain the Beloved.

In the second stanza Shaykh Sa'di, who flourished during the Crusades, and who was imprisoned by the French Crusaders, hints that it is rather possible to transfer Christianity from Rome to the Holy Land, in Asia Minor, than to attain Thee.

In the third Quatrain Mulla Abdu'r-Rahman Jami introduces some apparently unattainable and fanciful objects.

There can be no doubt that Shaykh Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr's verse inspired the other two poets to imitate him, with what success I leave others to judge.

I am reluctant to pursue the inquiry any further, as to the similitude or dissimilitude of the verses of Shavkh Abu Sa'Id's with those of others. It is certain that barring a few Quatrains of Shavkh Abu Sa'id and also of 'Omaru'l-Khavyām, the real authorship of the rest of the Quatrains ascribed to them will never be correctly traced. Beautiful as undoubtedly are their Quatrains, there are many poets who have written equally beautiful Quatrains.

In conclusion, I beg to tender my obligations to Mr. H. Beveridge for his kindly procuring for me a copy of the Quatrains from the British Museum, which never lends MSS., and

for his many advices and suggestions.

رباعيات ابوسعيد إبوالخير عليه الرحمة

(منقول از نسخهٔ بریتش موزیم لندن)

بسم الله الوحمن الوحيم

• رہامی ـــ ۲۲۹

آن عشق که هست جزء لاینفک ما حاشا که شود بعقل ما مدرک ما خوش آلکه زنور او دمد صبح بقین ما را برهاندد زظالم شک ما

وله ـــ ۲۳۰

منصور حلّاج آن نهنگ دریا کزینبهٔ تن دانهٔ جان کرد جدا روزی که انا العق بزبان می آورد منصور کجا بود خدا بود خدا

وله ـــ ۲۳۱

من دوش دعا کردم و باد آمینا تا به شود آن دو چشم بادا مینا از دیدهٔ به خواه دو را چشم رسید در دیدهٔ به خواه تو باد آمینا

وله ـــ ۲۳۲

ای کرده غست غارب هوش دل ما درد تو شده خانه فروش دل ما رئدی که مقدسان از او معرومند عشق تو مر او گفت بگرش دل ما

وله ـــ ۲۲۳

در دیده بجای خواب آب است مرا زیواکه بدیدنت شقسابست مرا گویفه بخواب تا بخوابش بیفی ای بیخبران چه جای خواب است مرا

^{*} در جلد ه جرنال هذا بابت سنة ١٩٠٥ ميلادي ٢٢٨ رباعيات شيخ ابوسعيد ابن ابو الخير رلا مطبوع گرديده بود لهذا شروع اين رباعيات از نمرة ٢٠٩ شد *

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وله .__ ۲۳۴

تا درد رسید چشم خونخدوار تر را خواهم که کشد جان من آزار تو را یا رب که زچشم زخم دوران هوگز دردی نوست نوگس بیمسار آسو را

وله ـــ د۲۳۷

مهمسان توخواهم آمسدن جانانا میتوانی کس ز حاسدان بنهسانا خالی کن این خالف زیس مهمسانا با ما کس را بخسسانه در منشسانا

وله ـــ ۲۳۲

آن رشتے ہے کے قدوت روانست موا آرایش جمانِ نا توانست مسرا بر لب چوکشي جان کشدم از پی آن پیسوند چو با رشتهٔ جان است مسوا

وله ـــ ۲۳۷

در رفع حُجب کوش نه در جمع کتب گر جمع کتب نمي شود رفع حُجب در طُسِي کتب کجب در طُسِي کتب کجا بود نشاء حب طی کن همه را بگو آلا آله و تُب

وله ـــ ۲۳۸

بر تافت عنان صبوري از جان خراب شدهمچوركاب حلقهٔ چشم از تب و تاب ديگر چو عنان نه پيچم از حكم توسر گر دولتِ پابوس تو يابم چو ركاب

وله ـــ ۲۳۹

از چرخ و فلک گردش یکسان مطلب وز دورِ زمانهٔ عدلِ سلطان مطلب روزی پنج که در جهان خواهی بود آزارِ دلِ هیم مسلمان مطلب

وله ــ ۲۴۰

وله — ۱۴۱

ای خواجه ترا عم جمالی ما هست و اندیشهٔ باغ و راغ و خرمن کاهست ما سوختگان عالم تجریدیم ما را عم لا الله الله است

وله ـــ ۲۴۲

سوفسطائي كه از خود بيخبر است گويد عالم خيمالي اندر گذر است آرى عالم همنه خيمالي است ولي پيوسته حقيقتي در او جلوه گو است

وله ـــ ۲۴۳

گویند دل آیینه کین عجب است در وی رخ شاهدان خود بین عجب است در آیینه روی شاهدان نیست عجب است در آیینه این عجب است

وله ــ ۲۴۴

بر شکل بنان رهزن عشّاق حق است لا بلکه عیان در همه آفاق حق است چیزی که بود زروی تقیید جهان و الله که همان زوجهٔ اطلاق حق است

وله ــ ۲۴۵

در هجر ويم قرار مي بايد و نيست كمايش جان زار مي بايد و نيست سرمايــهٔ روزگار مي بايد و نيست يعني كه وصال يار مي بايد و نيست

وله ـــ ۲۳۲

آثرا كه حالال زادگي عادت و خواست عيب همه مردمان بنچشمش نيكواست معيوب همه عيب كسان مي نارد از كوزه همان برون تراود كه در اوست

وله ـــ ۲۳۷

روزم بغسم جهان فرسوده گدشت شب در هوس بوده و نابوده گذشت عمسوی که ازو دسی جهانی ارزد القصده بفکسوهای بیهسوده گذشت

وله ـــ ۲۴۸

گویم ز غمم تو زار و گوئی زرق است چون زرق بودکهدیده درخون غرق است تو پذداری که جمله دلها دل تو است

وله ـــ ۲۴۹

آثرا که فنا شیولا و فقر آیین است با کشف یقین نه معرفت نه دین است رفت او ز میان همی خدا ماند خدا الفقسر اذا تم هو الله این است

Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'īyāt of Abu Sa'īd ibn Abu'l Khayr. 649 [N.S.]

وله ـــ ۲۵۰

چون بشکستم بقوبهام خواندی چست یکدم نه شکسته اش گذاری نه درست کردم توبه شکستیش روز نخست القصّه زمام توبهام در کف تست

وله ـــ ۱۵۱

گه آب در او قلخ و گهی شیرین است کین اسبِ اصیل مدام زیرِ زین است دنیا بعثال چو کوزاً زرین است تو غوال مشو که عمر من چندین است

وله ــــ ۲۵۲

سودی ندهد یاری هریار که هست پُرگل نشود دامن هرخار که هست قا در نوسد وعدهٔ هرکار که هسست قا زهمت سرها و زمستان نکشسد

وله ــــ ۲۵۳

نموودان را پشگهٔ چو پیلی بهـوست موسی و عصا و رود نیلی بهـوست

یارب تو زمانسه را دلیلی بهٔ سوست فرعونیسگان همسه زبردست شدند

وله -- ۲۵۴

وبن شربت شوق رایگان نقوان یافت یک جرعه بصد هزارجان نقوان یافت آسان آسان ز خود امان نقوان یافت زان می که عزیز جان مشتاقان است

وله ـــ هم،

بگذر ز ولایتی که آن زان تو نیست لاف از گهری زنی که در کان تو نیست از درد نشان مده که در جان تو نیست از بیخ ودی بود که با جوهریان

وله ـــ ۲۵۹

در عشقِ تر بدجسم همی باید زیست چون من همهمعشوق شدم عاشق کیست چشمههه اشکاشت و جسمهاگریست از من اثری نماند این گریه ز چیست

وله ـــ ۲۰۵۷

مائیم ز درد عشق تا جان باقیست می خون جگر مردم چشدت ساقیست

ما عاشق و عهد جان ما مشتاقیست غم نقل و ندیم درد و مطـــوب نالد

ولة ـــ ٢٥٨

مسکین دل رنجور من از درد گداخت ابن درد که در پلی تو خود را انداخت نا پای نو رنجه گشت و با درد بساخت گویسا کست ز روزگار دردی دارد

وله ـــ ۲۵۹

بيگانه نمي شود مگر خويش من است مازل مازل غم تو درپيش من است عشقِ تو بلای جانِ درویشِ من است گفتـــم سفری کلم زغم بگـــریزم

وله ـــ ۲۶۰

زان مست شدم که عقل دیوانهٔ اوست زان شمع که کفتاب پروانهٔ اوست زان مَي هُوردم که روح پِیمانهٔ اوست دودی بدن آمسند آتشی با من زد

وله ــــ ۲۹۱

معسواب نشیسن گوشهٔ ابرویت روی دل کافر و مسلمسان سویت زنــــــــار پرست زلـــف عنهــــــــــــر بویت بارب تو چه کعبهٔ که باشد شب و روز

وله ـــ ۲۹۲

جنّت اثری زین دل گنجینهٔ ماست با درد و غیش که یار دیرینهٔ ماست دوزخ شررے ز آتش سیدگ ماست فارغ ز بهشت و دوزخ ایدل خوش باش

وله ــــ ۲۹۳

دل دیده پر آب کرد و بسیار گریست کورا بهسواد داگسوی باید زیست

با دلگفتم که ای دل احوال دو چیست گفتسا که چگونه باشد احوال کسی

وله ــ ۲۹۴

معسرابِ جهانیسان خم ابرویت سر رشتسه دلهای پریشان مویت ای مقصد خورشیده پرستان رویت سرمایهٔ عیش ننگ دستسان دهنت

وله ـــ ۱۳۹۶

خون در دل آرزو از چشم تر ماست کالماس دهای بادلا در ساغر ماست Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'iyāt of Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr. 651

وله ـــ ۲۹۹

إنجاهمه كاهش است افزايش نيست بيجرم و كند اميد بخشايش نيست در کشور مشق جای آسایش نیست بيسدرد و السم توقيع درمان نه

وله ـــ ۲۹۷

عقلم شد وصبر رفت و هوشم بگریشت چون دیده که هرچه داشت در پایم ریشت عشق آمد وگود فقده برجانم بیخت زين واقعة سخ دوست دستم بكرفت

وله ـــ ۲۹۸

چه پنداری که گورم از عشق تهی است آواز دهم که حال معشوقم چیست

گر موده بوم بو آهده ^{سال}ی بیست گر دست بخای من نهي کاينجاکيست

ولھ ــــ ۲۹۹

روى همسه مقبالت عالم سويت قسودا بكسدام رو به بيفسد رويت

ای قبلے کے مو کہ مقبل امد رویت امروز کسی کز تو بگـــرداند روی

ولھ ــــ ۲۰

این قدرت و فعل ازآن بما منسوب است

از ما همه عجز و نيستي مطلوب است مستي و توابعش زما منكوب است این اوست پدید گشته در صورت ما

ولھ ــــ ۲۷۱

بندار يقينها وكمانها ممده هيي كانجا كه توئي بود نشانها همــه هيي

ای در تو نهانها و عیانها همه هیچ از ذات تو مطلقاً نشان نقوان بافت

وله --- ۲۷۲

با لمل تو سلسبیل و کوثر همسه هیچ دبدم که همه توئي و دیگر همه هیچ

ای با رخت انوارِ مه و خور همه هیچ بودم همه بين چو تيز بين شد چشم

وله -- ۲۷۳

کاهی چو الف راست گهی چون نونند كز خاطر و فهسم ادمي بيروندسه خلقسان تو ای جلال گوناگوند د در حضرت اجلال خيال مجنسون

وله -- ۲۷۴

انواع عطا گرچه خدا مي بخشدد هر اسم عطيت خدا مي بخشد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بک اسم فنا يکى بقا مي بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بک اسم فنا يکى بقا مي بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بک اسم فنا يکى بقا مي بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى حقيقـت عالـم را بخشـد در هـر آنى در م در آنى در م در آنى در آن

یارم همید نیش بر سر نیش زندد گویم که مزن ستیسزه را بیش زند چون در دلِ من مقام دارد شب و روز میتوسم ازانکه نیش بر خویش زند

• ولع -- ۲۷۹

هرچدد کسته جان عارف آگالا بود " کی در حسوم قدس تواش رالا بود دست همه اهل کشف و ارباب شهود از داهسی ادراک تو کوقسالا بود

وله – ۲۷۷

دل خسته و سینه چاک می باید شد. وز هستی خویش پاک می باید شد آن به که به خود پاک شویم اول کار چون آخسر کار خاک می باید شد

وله -- ۲۷۸

عاشق چو شوي تيغ بسر بايد خورد زهري كه رسد همچو شكر بايد خورد هرچند تورا بر جگر بايد خورد دريا دريا خون جگر بايد خورد

وله -- ۲۷۹

نقسائ اگر ز موی پرگار کذهد نقش دهن تنسگ تو دشوار کند. آن تنگسی و نازکی که دارد دهنت ترسم که نفس کب تو انکار کند.

وله -- ۲۸۰

بر کونی تو هرکسه را سروکار فتسد از سجسدهٔ دیر و کعبه بیزار فقسد گر زلف تو در کعبسه فشانسد دامن اسلام بدست و پای زنسار فتسد

وله — ۲۸۱

آنوا که حدیث عشق در دل گــرده باید که زنیــغ عشق بسمل گردد از خاک طیان طیان رخ آغشقه بخون برخیــدد و گرد سرِ قاتل گــردد Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'iyāt of Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr. 663 [N.S.]

وله -- ۲۸۲

قومی زخیسال در غرور افتسادند واندر طلب حور و قصور افتسادند قومی متشکّند و قومی بیقیسن از کوی تسو دور دور افتسادند

وله -- ۲۸۳

درویشانند هرچه هست ایشانند در صفحه بار در صف پیشانندد خواهی که مس وجود زر گردانی با ایشان باش کیمه ایشانندد وله یا ۱۴۴۹ ۴

زان ناله که در بستر عم دوشم بود عمه ای جهان جمله فراموشم بود یاران همته در او کود اثر گوشم بود

وله ـــ ۲۸۵

آوره صب گلی زگلدار امید یا روح قدس شهپری افگذه سفید یا کود قضا شق ورقی از خورشید یا نامهٔ یاریست کده آورده نوید

وله ـــ ۲۸۶

دی وقت سمساع بوی دادار بود مسا را بسوا پسودهٔ اسوار بسود این زمزمهٔ مرکب مر روح ترا است بر دارد و خوش بعسالم یار بود

ولھ ـــ ۲۸۷

ای را زحسد ز پیش بیسرون نشود خود بینان را معسرفت افزون نشود آن فقر که مصطفی بران فخر کورد آنجا نرسی تا جگرت خون نشود

وله ـــ ۲۸۸

دل صافي كن كه حق بدل مي نگرد دلهاى پراگذـــد، بيك جو نخــره اى هركه كند صافى دل از بهر خدا گرى از همـــه مردم عالـــم ببود

وله ـــ ۲۸۹

خواهي كسة تورا دولت ابرار رسد ميسند كه از تو بركس آزار رسد از موگ مينديش و عم رزق مخسور كين هر دو بوقت خويش ناچار رسد

وله ـــ ۲۹۰

در سلسلهٔ عشق تو جان خواهم داد در عشق تو ترک خانمان خواهم داد روزی که تورا به بینم ای عمر عزیز کان روز یقین بدان که جان خواهم داد ولی که تورا به بینم ای عمر عزیز کان روز یقین بدان که جان خواهم داد

اسرار وجود خام و نا پخته بماند وان گوهر بس شریف ناسفته بماند هر کس بدلیل عقل چیزی گفتند. د آن نکته که اصل بود نا گفته بماند

وله ـــ ۲۹۲

رفقهم بکلیسیای ترسه و یههود ترسا و یهود جملگهی رو بقر بود بر یاد وصالِ تو به بتخهانه شدم تسبیسیم بقان زمزمهٔ عشیق تو بود ... ۲۹۳

د کاری بکنیم که پرده از کار افتد

کز هر قاری هسزار زنسار افتسد

گر مشق دل مرا خویسدار افدسد ستجسادهٔ پرهیز چنسان افتسانم

وله ـــ ۲۹۴

آن رشقه که بر لعل لبت سوده شود و زنوش دهان اشک آلوده شهود خواهم که بدین سینهٔ چاکم دوزی شاید که زغمهای تو آسوده شود

وله ـــ م

آنسروز که بنسده آوریدی بوجود میدانستی که بنده چون خواهد بود یارب تو گناه بنسده بر بنسده مگیر کین بنده همین کند که تقدیر تو بود

وله ـــ ۲۹۲

گر عدل کنی شر جهانت خوانند ور ظلم کنی سگ عوانت خوانفد چشسم خردت باز کن و نیک ببین تا زین دو کدام به که انت خوانند

وله --- ۲۹۷

گر دشمسن مودان بیشل بوق شود هم برق صفت بخویشتن غوق شود گر سگ بیدست و سگ غوق شود گر سگ بیدشد و سگ غوق شود

Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'iyāt of Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr. 655 [N.S.]

وله ـــ ۲۹۸

آنها که ز معبود خبر یافته انه از جملهٔ کانفای سر تافته اند دریوزه همی کننده صردان ز نظر و نظر یافته اند

وله ــــ ۲۹۹

از درگه نقش کوه و هامون بستنده ترکیب سهی قدان موزون بستند، پا بسته بزنجید و جنون من بودم مردم سخنی بپای مجنون بستند

وله ــ ۲۰۰

تا مود بنیغ عشق بی سر نشود اندر را عشق و عاشقی سر (؟) نشود هم بار طلب کنی و هم سر خواهی آری خواهی ولی میسر نشود

وله 🗕 ۲۰۱

گر دور فقسادم از ومسالت بغسرور دارد دلم از یاد تو صد نوع حضسور خاصیت سایهٔ تو دارم که صدام نزدیکِ تو ام اگرچه می افتسم دور

وله ــ ۳۰۲

خورشید چو بر فلک زند رایت نور در پرتو آن خیره شود دیده ز دور و اندم که گذید ز پردهٔ ابر ظهر و قالنگاطر بجتلیسه سن نیسر قصور

ولد ـــ ۳۰۳

ای فضل تو دستگیر من دستم گیر سیر آمده ام زخویشتن دستم گیر تا چند کنم توبه و تا کی شکنهم ای توبه ده و توبه شکن دستهم گیر

وله ــــ ۲۰۴

هر در که زبحر اشکم افقد بکنسار در رشتسهٔ جان خود کشم گوهر وار گهرم بکفش چو سبحه در فرقت یار بعنی که نمی زنم نفس جن بشمسار

وله ـــ ۵-۳

هر لقبة كه برخوان عوالست معور گر نفس تورا راحت جان است معور گر نفس تورا مسل نبساید ببنسل آن خون دلِ پیره زنانست معسور

ولد ___ ۲۰۹

ای در طلب تو عالمی بر شر و شور نزدیک تو درویش و توانگر همه عور ای با همه در حدیث و گرفی همه کر وی با همه در حضور و چشم همه کور وله __ یام

من نيسوبر فم هردو الداخلة م تسبيع در آتش آتش الدر زنار

ناقسوس نواز گو ز من دارد مسار سجاده نشین اگر زمن کرده گنسار

وله ـــ ۸-۳

م چون سلطنت زمانه بگذاشتنی است بیسوند بملک بینسوانی خوشتسر

بايسار موافق اشسائي خوشسر وزهمدم بيوفا جدائي خوشتر

وله ـــ ۹-۳

دلخسته و دل فسكار و مركان خونريز وفقه بريار كان من مهمر الكيسز من جلى نكودة گرم گردون بستير زد بانگ كه هان چند نشيني برخيو

شاها زدمای مسود آگاه بقس و زسوز دل و آه سعسوگاه بنوس بر لشكو وبرسها خود بُرُّة مشو از كمدن سيل بناكاه بترمى

وله ـــ ۱۱۳

بر سر زدم از فراق چندانکه میرس

ای شوق تو در مذاق چندان که مهرس جانوا بنو اشتیاق چندانکه میرس کن دست که داشتم بندامان وصال

وله ۱۳

نو روز شده و چهال بر آورده نفس حاصل زبهار عمسر ما را فم و بس دًا لاله بداغ سر ذكون ساخت جرس

ز قافلسهٔ بهسار نامسد آواز

وله ـــ ۱۳۳

بیگانه زخویش و آشفای همه باش دست همه گیر و خاک پای همه باش شاهی طلبسی برو گدای همسه باش خواهی که ترا چو تاج بو سر دارند Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'īyāt of Abu Sa'īd ibn Abu'l Khayr. 657 [N.S.]

وله ـــ ۱۴

جون شب برسد ز صبح خیزان میباش چون شام شود ز اشک ریزان میباش او روز شرحه خلاف او گریزان میباش او ایران میباش

وله ـــ ۱۵

تا در لزني بهسوچسه داري اتسش مرگز نشود حقیقت حال تو خوش ما را خواهي خُطی بعالم در کش کاندر یک دل دو دوستی ناید خوش

وله ـــ ۱۹۹

در میدان با سپر و ترکش باش سرهیچ بخود مکش بما سوکش باش گو خوالا زمانه آب و خوالا آتش باش تو شاد بزی و درمیانه خوش باش

وله ـــ ۱۷

چون ذات تومتّقي (؟) بوداي صاحب هوش از نسبت افعال بعدد باش خموش شيرين مثلى شنو مكس روى أوش تُبِّت للعسرش اوّلا تم الْقَسَ

وله ـــ ۲۱۸

پیوسته موا زخالق جسم و عرض حقّا که همین بود و همین است عرض کان جسم لطیف را بخلوتگده داز فارغ بیشم همیشه زاسیب و مرض

وله ـــ ۱۹ م

ای بر سر حرف این و آن ناز دلا خط پندار دوئی دلیل بعد است بخط در جمله کاندات بی سهو و علسط یک شع صحب دان و یک ذات فقط

وله ـــ ۳۲۰

گشنسي بوقوف بر مواقف قانسع شد قصد مقاصدت ز مقصد مانع مركز نشود تا بكس كشف حُجسب انوار حقیقست از مطالع طالع

وله ـــ ۳۲۱

بر مود دلم نواخت یک زمزمهٔ عشق زان زمزمه ام ز پای تا سر میه عشق حقات که بعهدها نیایم بیرون از عهدهٔ حق گذاری یک دمهٔ عشق

وله ـــ ۳۲۲

کی باشد کی لباس هستی شده شق تا جان گشت جمال وجه مطلق دل در سطوت نور او مستَعلَ کی در سطوت او مستَعلَ کی در سطوت او مستَعلَ ک

وله ـــ ۳۲۳

مه عشق بستر همه صحنت است وبالین همه عشق است و بالین همه عشق است به به عشق الله دلی و چندین همه عشق ا

مارا شده است رسم و آیین همه عشق وی بر سبحان الله رخی و چندین ممه حسن

وله ـــ ۳۲۴

ر آلودگی بنسار با مشقی خاک کو ما و تو درمیان نباشیسم چه باک

دامان غنـــای عشق یا ک آمد۔ یاک چون جلووکند نظارگي جملھ خود است

وله ـــ ۲۲۵

چون دانهٔ اشکِ عاشقان در مه و سال چون صورتِ حالِ من شدی صورتِ حال سرصست بدشت خاوران الالسنة ال بنمود چو حسن دوست از پوده جمال

وله ــ ۳۲۲

در باغ کجا روم که نالد بُلبُ ل بی تو چکنه جلوهٔ سرو و سنبل یا در باغ کجا روم که نالد بُلب یا روی تو هست انچه میدارد گل

وله ـــ ۳۲۷

همچسون صفی چارده رسیدی بکمال در چارده سالگی بمانی صد سال

ای چارده ساله مه که در حسن و جمال یارب نوسد بحسد ت کسیب زوال

وله ـــ ۲۲۸

ای عهد تو عهد دوستان سر پُل از عهد تو کین خیزد و از مهر تو ذُل ای عهد و میان تهی همچدو دُهل ای یکشده همچوشیع و یک روزه چوگُل پر ولوله و میان تهی همچدو دُهل

وله ـــ ۲۲۹

بر مسوکب آرزو سوار آیسد دل ور عشق نباشد بهسه کار آید دل گر با عسم عشق سازگار آیسد دل گر دل نبود کجا وطن سازد عشسق Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'īyāt of Abu Sa'īd ibn Abu'l Khayr. 659 [N.S.]

وله ـــ ۳۳۰

دل را بقسوام آزمودن مشكسل بودن مشكل با ثو نبودن مشكلل

با خود در وصل تو گشودن مشکسل مشکل حالی و طوفے مشکل حالی

وله __ ا ٣٣

باشد زنع وس پاک متعال دارد بقصدور قابلهاك مسآل

هرنعت که از قبیل خیراست و کمال هر وصف که در حباب (؟) شوّاست و وبال

وله ـــ ۳۳۲

ميدان بيقين كه محض خيراست ايدل پس شر همه مقتضای غیر است ایدل

هوجا که وجود کردلا سیر است ای دل هو شرز عدم بود عدم عیسن وجود

وله ــ سس

اطف تو اصید است که گیود دسد ــم عاجز تر ازین مخروالا اکنون هستم

گرمن گفه روی زمین کودستهم گفتی که بروز عجـــز دستت گیــرم

وله ــ عسم

از دولت دیدار تو گشتهم صحروم

قا بودی ازین دیار تشریف قدوم بر دل رقسم شوق قو دارم صوقوم این عصده مراکشت که هنگام وداع

وله __ هس

لأثيم كرديد وكس (نه) درين سر محرم عالم در حق حق است و حق در عالم

بولوح عـــدم لوائيج نــورٍ قِـــدم حق را مشمـــو جدا ز عالم زیراک

وله __ ولام

كز سيل سوشك خود گذر نقــوانم

زاندم كه قرين معنت و افغانم هر لحظه ز هجران بلب امد جانم محسروم زخاک آستانت زانسم

وله ـــ ۳۳۷

در هر کاری خــون جگــر پالودم دست از همه باز داشتهم آسودم عبري بهــوس باد هوا پیهــودم در هرچه زدم دست زغم فرسودم

وز باد؛ شسوق بيطبر مي آيسم من نیسز بسوی تو بسر می آیم

با یاد قو با دیسدهٔ تر می آیسم ایآم قراق چون بسر اهسده است

وله ___

گر در سفوم توئي رفيسق سفوم ور در حفسوم توئي انيس حفسوم هرجا که نشینه و بَهُر جا گهفرم جز تو نیسود هیه مواد دگهوم

دو دائر ، وجسود سلطسان مايدسم پس جام جهانيان خلقان ماييم

در حضــری پادشاه دوران مایدــم منظور خلایق است این سینگ ما

مولم ___ 461

كر نگهت آن مشام جان يافت شميم مشکیدن رقمش معطّر از خُلق کریم دی تازه گلی ز گلشن آورد نسیبم نینی غلطم که صفحهٔ بود از سیم

وله __ مام

نى نيز ز تقعيــر امل مي ترسـم از سابقے ، روز ازل مي قرصے م نه از ســـركار با خلل مي ترســم ترسم که گذاه نیست آمرزش هست

وله ــ سعس

تا بیسش تو ای نگار ننشاننسدم خورشید توئی بذره من مانسدم چون آن شده ام که دید نتواننسدم چون ذُرُّة بخورشد ــد همي پيونده

وله __ عص

یا در گسذری هم بسلامت بینسم ناهبت بنسويسم وبنساهت بينسم این بخت ندارم که بکامت بینــم وصل تو بہبسیے گوند دستہم ناید

ولد __ هعس

بهچه م تو یاد نرگس تر نکنه بی لهه تو آرزوی کوثر نکنه کافر باشم که بی تولب تو نکذه

گرخضر بهن بی تو دهد آب حیات

Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'iyāt of Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr. 661

ما قبلةً طاعت آن دو رو مددانيسم ايمان سر زلف مشكبسو ميدانيسم ما طالع خویش را نکسو میدالیسم

با این همه دلدار بما نیکـــو لهست

وله ـــ ۱۹۳۷

ز امیزش جان و آن توئی مقصودم و ز مردن و زیستن توئی مقصودم گر من گویم زامن توثی مقه ...ودم

قو دیر ز*ی* که من برفقه زمیان

MEA _ do

بى زلف تو آرزوى ايمان نكذهم الديشـــ جان براي جانان نكنــم

بیدرد تو اندیشگ درمان نکنهم جانا تو اگر جان طلبی خو*ش* باشد

وله ـــ ۱۹۹۹

گر جانت بکار است نگه دار زبان سر برگ درخت است زبان باد گزان

جان استو زبان است زبان دشمن جان شيرين سخني بكفت شاء سخنان

ولد __ ماس

دارد سریان در همه اعدان جهان بر قول قبول عيب گشت است عيان

هستی بصفاتی که در او بود نهان هو وصف ز میبی کسم بود قالل آن

ولد ___ 201

گریان چشمی و اشک جیسون جیسون هر شعله ز کوه قاف افزون افزون

شوریده دلی و قصده گردون گودون كاهيدة تذي وشعلسه خرمن خرمن

وله ـــ ۲۵۳

صوفی گوید که دلق بشید می من صندائم و دل که چیست در سینهٔ من سلطان گوید که نقد گذیهند من ماشق گوید کسه داغ دیرینسهٔ من

وله __ سوس

ديدار تو بيعجاب ديدس نقروان سر چشمهٔ آفتساب دیدن نقسوان رخسار تو بى لقساب ديدن نقسوان ما دام کست در کیسال اسوالی بود

وله ــ عهم

هر چيز که غيرِ ماست آنوا يله کن گرکارِ تو بر نايد آنگـــه گلـــه کن در درگھ ما دوستسيء يک دلھ کن يک صبسے باخسائس بيا بر درٍ ما

ولد ـــ هه٣

نافسوس بکعبسه در درنگ آوردن بقوان د نقسوان تورا بیخگ آوردن از بساده بروی شیسنخ رنگ آوردن اِسسالام بجسائب فسونگ آوردن

وله ـــ ۲۵۳

کاندر بر من نه نو بهشت و نه کهُــن گر زین بتوم کند که گوید که مکُـــن فریساد زدست فلک پیسو و بُن با این همه نیز شکسو می باید کرد

وله ــ ۳۵۷

زان بحر ندیده غیر موج اهل جهان برظاهرِ بحر و بحر در موج نهان بحریست وجود جان درآن موج زنان از باطنِ بحر موج هین گشقــه عیان

وله ــ ۲۵۸

کز جور و جفای او جگر دارم خون تا خود فلک از پرده چه آرد بیرون فویاد ز دست فلیک آئینیه گرن روزی بهسزار غیم بشب می آرم

وله ـــ ۱۹۹

هرلعظه مپوش چهره چون عشوهگران در پرده عیان باشم و بی پرده نهان با گارخ خویش گفتم ای عَنْچَهٔ دهان زد خنده که من بعکس خوبان جهان

وله ــ ۳۲۰

ز اندازه گذشت محنت جانبی من معلسوم شود مگر رپویشانع من

زد شعلده بدل آتش پنهالي من معنورم اگر سخن پريشان افتداد

ولد ـــ ۳۹۱

چون آب حيات در سياهي پنهان شد بحبر ز انبوهي ماهي پنهان بنگر بچهان سو الهسي پنهان پيدا آمسد زبحر ماهي اهسواه Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'iyāt of Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr. 663 [N.S.]

وله ــــ ۳۹۲

چون حق بقاصیل شاون گشت عیان مشهود شد این عالم بر سود و زیان گر باز رونسد عالسم و عالمیسان با رتبهٔ اجمسال حق آیند عیسان

وله ــ ۳۹۳

* صوفي گويد كه دلق پشميذه من سلطان گويد كه نقد گذجيذه من من در سينه من من دانم ودل كه چيست در سينه من

وله ـــ ۳۹۴

ای درهمه شأن ذات نوپاک از همهشین نه در حق نو کَیْف توان گفت نه اَین از وری تعقق همه عین از روی تعقق همه عین

وله ـــ ۳۹۵

دنیا گدران معنست دنیسا گذران نی بر پدران ماند و نی بر پسران قا بقسوانی عمسر بطاعت گسذران بذگر که فلک چه می کند با دگران

وله ـــ ۳۹۹

گرسقف سپهر گردد آبینگ چین ور تختگ فولاد شود روي زمین از روزي تو کم نشود دان بیقیسن میدانکه چنینست وچنین است و چنین

وله ـــ ۳۹۷

درویشي کن و قصد در شالا مکنن و زدامن فقیر دست کوتالا مکنن اندر دهنن نار شو و مال مجنوی در چالا نشین و طلب جالا مکنن

ولد ـــ ۳۹۸

اسوار ازل را نه تو داني و نه مسن وين حرف معمّا نه تو خواني و نه من هست از پس پرده گفتگري من و نو چون پرده برافتد نه تو داني و نه من

وله ـــ ۳۹۹

ای آمده کارِ من بهان از غمِ تو تنگ آمده بر دلم جهان از غمِ تو هان ای دل و دیده تا بسر بر نکنم خاک همه دشت خاوران از غسم تو

^{*}This Quatrain is the same as Quatrain No. 352 supra; the first line of the one being the second line of the other. It has been inserted twice through inadvertence.

مودی کنی و نگاهسداری سر کو باید که زیکسدگر نگسودانی رو

هان ياران هويها جوالمردان هو گرتیر جهان رسد که بشگانسد مو

وله ---

گه دوستی که بوی خون آید ازو

عشق است که شیر نو زبون آید ازو از هرچه گمان بری فرون آید ازو گه دشمنسس کند گه مهسر افزاید

ولد ___

دارم چو پذـاه سایگ دولت تو

دورم اگر از سعسادت خدمت تو پیوسته دلست ائینگ طاهست تو از گرمی افتاب هجررم چه فیست

وله ___

وى كرية طفسل بيكنسالا از عم تو ۱۲ از فسم نو هزار ۱۱ از فسم نو

ای نالهٔ پیـــر خانقــاه از غم تو افغان و خروش صبحكاد از غم تو

وله ـــ ۲۷۴

یک آیهنه کس لدید بی صورت تو خود آمده بديدن صروت تو ای آیید ـــه را داده جـــلا صورت تو نی لی که زلطف در همه آیید هما

وله ___ W V 0

زهریست کسه قریاق ندارد غسم تو بیدل کذـد و زدین بر آرد غم تو

ابریست که خون دیده بارد غــم تو در هر نفسی ه**زار محن**ست ز**دلا** را

وله ___

سوزدل من سزائل ميدداني تو پنهان چه کنم که فاش میدانی تو

درد دل مـــن دوا**ی** میـــدانی تو می فرق گذه پردهٔ عصیان در پیش

وله ـــ ۲۷۷

هر جا که شکسته ایست انجائی تو در حال شکست گان چه فرمائی تو

من مي شفوم کھ مي بڪشائي تو ما جمله شكسة _ كان دركاد تويد _ م

Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'īyāt of Abu Sa'īd ibn Abu'l Khayr. 665 [N.S.]

فریاد کسد باه از تو و باران از تو

ای سبزی سبز بهاران از تو **۱۶ دل و اشک بهق**راران از ترو

سر گردانسم چو گرد باد از عم تو

ای پیر و جوان دهر شاه از غم تو فارغ دل هینهکس مباه از غم تو مسکین من بیچاره در این عالم خاک

وله __ م

تا همه او کبوتر از تو ارد نامسه

هجران تورا چو گرم شد هنسگامه بر آتش من قطسولا فقان از خامد من رفتم و مو غ روح من پیشِ توماند

وله ـــ ۲۸۱

امسواج براو رونسده و آينسده نبود دو زمان بلکه دو آن پاینده بحريست نه كاهنده نه افزاينده عالم چو عباوت از همین اصواج است

ch __ ole

پروانه صفت سرختگ سوختگ

دارم صنمی چهـره بر افروحتــهٔ با جور و جفــا و ستم آموختــهٔ او عاشق دیگـــری و من عاشق او

وله __ مام

طاعت کد بشب کنی نہاں از همه به نان ده بجهانیان که نان از همه به در گفتن ذکر حق زبان از همسه به خواهي زيل صــواط اسان گذري

وله __ ع۸۳

و ز هر مود قطودهای خون آورده از روزن سیند. سر بــرون آورده

چشممسم که سرشک لاله گون آورده نی نی بنظاره ات دل خون شده ام

وله ـــ ه۸۳

گر تو نووی روندگانوا چه گذاه دل صانی کن و قبا همین پوش و کلاه

اینک سر کوبی دوست اینک سر رالا جامه چه کان کبود و نیلی و سیالا

وله ـــ ۳۸۹

دنیا طلبان ز حرص مستند همده موسی کش و فرعون پرستند همده هر عهد کد با خدای بستنده همه از دوستی حرص شکستند همه

وله ـــ ۳۸۷

عالم بود او نه ز غیروت عساری نهسری جاری بطروهای طاری والدرهمة طورهاى نهدو جارى سريست حقيقة العقايق سارى

وله ـــ ۳۸۸

تحقيق معانى زعبارات مجسوى بيرفع قيسود واعتبارات مجسوى قانون نشاط از اشارات مجسوى

ولد __ ولا

خواهي که بري بحال وي با همه پي می وی بود اندروی و وی درمی وی

هستی که ظهور می کند در همه شی رو بر سرِ می حباب را بین که چسان

وله ـــ ۳۹۰

گرشهره شوي بشهــــر شر النّاسي ور خانه نشينــي همگـــــي وسواسي به زان نبود که همچو خضر و الهاس کس نشناسد قرا تو کس بشناسي

ولد __ ه

دنیاء دنی پیر هوس را چه کنسی الودهٔ هرناکس و کس را چه کنی آن يار طلب كن كه تورا باشد و بس معشوقة صد هزار كس را چه كني

ولة ـــ ٣٩٢

هر چيـــز که در جستن آني آني

گر در طلسب گوهــــر کاني کاني گر زنـــده ببوی وصل جاني جاني القصة حديث مطلق از من بشدو

وله ــ سوس

به زان نبود که خاطری شاد کنی

خواهي چو ځليل كعبسه بنيباد كغي و أنوا بغمساز و طاعت آباد كنسي روزی دو هزار بنده آزاد کنسی

Vol. VII, No. 10.] Rubā'iyāt of Abu Sa'id ibn Abu'l Khayr. 667 [N.S.]

m916 ___

بيرون نه ز فومان تو دل يكسو موى باطن که بدست توست انوا تو بشوی

ای در خم چوکان تو سرها شده گوی ظاهر كه بدست ماست آلوا شستـــم

وله ـــ د ۳۹۵

يا با غم من صبير بهيم بايستي يا عمر بالدازة فهم بايستك

غم جمله نصيب چرخ خم بايستي يا مايئًا نمم چوعهــــوكم بايستــــي

اى خالق ذو الجلل هر جانورى وى رهرو رهنماى هر بيخبوى بگشای دری که من ندارم خبری

بستـــم کهـــو اصیـــد بر درگه تو

اوصانی تو در صفات شان متواری در ضن مظاهر از تقید عاري

ای ذات تو در مفات اعیان ساری وصف تو چو ذات مطلق است آمانيست

وله ___ m9 A

ذرات جهال را همه نیکسو بیني خود آييله شو نا همگـــي او بيني

اى دل اگر آن عارض دلجو بينسي در آیینه کم نگر که خود بین نشوی

وله ___ m99

نرویج چندسی مداع کاسد تا کی فاسد باشد خيسال فاسد تا كى

وصّافي خود بر عسم حاسد تا كي تو معدومي هيسال هستي از تو

وله ___

يك سجدة شايستة لائق نكنب تا ترک خود و جمله خلائق نکنی

نا تری علائسق و عوائسق نکنسی حقّ که زدام لات وعزّی نوهي

وله ___

در شان دگر جا-وه کذاه در آني هستی که عیان نیست دوآن در شانی گر بایدت از کـــام حـــق برهاني اين نكته بجــو زكلٌ يومٍ في شأن



46. Exogamous Septs of the Gehara Section of Kunchbandia Kanjars.

By W. KIRKPATRICK.

"If we are to understand the rise and history of Totemism "and Exogamy, we must clearly apprehend that totemism "existed in all its essential features before exogamy was "thought of, in other words, that exogamy was an innovation "imposed on communities who were already divided into "totemic classes.

"The totemic clan is a totally different social organism "from the exogamous class, and we have good grounds for "thinking that it is far older."

J. G. FRAZER, Totemism and Exogamy, vol. iv, p. 75.

The Geharas are an Endogamous section of the tribes of a Gypsy character scattered over India, and known under the generic name of Kanjar. While it is conceivable that the Geharas, like most other hitherto casteless peoples in India, will receive into their eamp members—particularly women—of allied tribes, the inclination is towards a strict observance of the Endogamic practice. This marrying within the clan is inculcated in one of their socio-religious songs: "Gehári Karsi tho náo chalsi, Kájri Karsi tho náo ná chalsi," "Marry a Gehari and your (our) name will continue, marry an outsider and your (our) name will disappear."

While Endogamous, as a section or clan, the Geharas are divided up into a number of Exogamous septs, some of totemic and others of functional origin. I will not attempt to definitely fix on the exact origin of each sept, but it is abundantly clear that whatever may have been the structure of the original primeval clan or camp, and whatever its original Exogamous or Endogamous divisions, the process of splitting up into Endogamous sections and Exogamous sub-sections has taken on a new lease of activity under Brahmanical influence. To the field worker in Sociological Ethnology who would determine the origin of the various descriptive names of the sub-sections and septs of these so-called Dravidian and Gypsy-like tribes,

¹ See J A.S.B., vol. vii, No. 6, Pasi Poli or Argot of Kunchbandiya Kanjars See J A.S.B., vol. vii, No. 7, Folk Song and Folk-lore of the Gehara, anjars.

this absorption of the casteless tribes of India into Hinduism

of the fourth degree (Sudra) presents many pitfalls.

The original gang system as we know enforced a rigid recognition of the custom of "marrying out," or, as it is now called, Exogamy; and these Exogamous divisions might well all have been of totemic origin—of a totemism born of reverence for some particular animal, or part of an animal, or implement or natural object, or some matter bearing a relation to some natural object, or natural function, or it may have been a totemism induced by some function, or object related to an occupation. A totemic sept is not always an Exogamous sept, the one can be entirely independent of, or it may overlap, the other.

The Exogamous sept can also have a local or communal origin, and there is another class of Exogmous division namely, the Eponymous—"The ancestor," to quote Sir Herbert Risley, "who gives his name to the group, being either a Vedic saint (as with the Brahmans and the castes who imitate them) or a chief of comparatively modern date as with the Rajputs and others."

This form of divisional ancestral appellation—the Eponym—has hitherto been the close preserve of the Higher Hindu castes. To the aspirant to Hinduism there is an obvious attraction to be able to point to an Eponymous founder rather than to an inanimate totem.

Finally, we have the Titular or nickname group, which is common and nowadays perhaps the most popular, because with a little ingenuity and the help of the subsidized Brahman it is always possible to convert the most obvious and outrageous nickname into some one of the divine names from the Hindu Pantheon.

One is tempted to speculate here whether the Exogamous septs which we find existing among these Gypsy-like tribes—not to be too sweeping I would say—whether the social organization of all Kanjars—has been created or founded on an Exogamous base in imitation of the social customs prevailing in Hinduism, or is it not more likely that the laws of Exogamy originating with the primeval hordes and "camps" have been adopted of necessity—collaterally with the expansion of Hinduism and the development of the caste system.

The whole question of Totemism and Exogamy is dealt with exhaustively by Professor J. G. Frazer in his monumental work "Totemism and Exogamy," and the subject in its relation to Indian tribes and castes has been thoroughly studied and explained by both Mr. W. Crooke and Sir Herbert Risley.

¹ H. H. Risley, Peoples of India, p. 15%.

Crooke's Tribes and Castes of the N. W. Provinces of India.
 Sir Herbert Risley, "The Peoples of India."

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The simple rule of Exogamy that the bride must be selected from an encampment different from that of the bridgegroom! is observed by the Sansias, Haburas, and other Gypsy tribes allied to the Kanjars, and I have no doubt this practice was prevalent among the Kunchbandia Kanjars when they still pursued a true nomadic life. As we know them to-day, although they are more and more inclined to become settled, the Kanjars remain divided up into several Exogamous septs in which are discernible the remnants of the camp system; and this is Exogamy in its most primitive form.

The Gehara Endogamous section of Kanjars is subdivided into ten Exogamous septs. Of these, I place eight as true, and two as 'spurious.' I believe two septs are latter-day inventions created to cover up some breach of the Exogamic lawtheir names would suggest this. It may be, the eight septs were found to be short of either men or women, and the creation of a new Exogamous sept became an absolute necessity to maintain the Endogamic value of the whole section. There is further justification in fixing the number of true Exogamous septs of the Gehara at eight, in that the two I term 'spurious' were not known to all the members of the tribe, while every adult man, and even boys, knew the eight pukka gót. Mr. Nesfield in his Account of the Kanjars 2 says, they "profess to have seven clans, of whom five are well established, and four can be explained by their crafts," but Mr. Nesfield did not apparently appreciate that these seven "clans," as he calls them, were "Exogamous septs!" Mr. Crooke considers the enumeration given to him "by an Aligarh correspondent," who ascribes nine sections to the Kunchbandia Kanjars, as "the most accurate and complete."'s

The ten Exogamous septs of the Geharas discovered to me are—

- 1. Bhains.
- 2. Baid Bhains.
- 3. Goh-hér or Gailoth.
- 4. Nákphūlá.
- Ūntwár.
- 6. Maráivá.
- 7. Sunkat.
- 8 Sohnrá.
- o sonnra.
- 9. Sainak Sohdá.
- 10. Rárī Sohdá.

Of the above the two doubtful septs are the Baid Bhains and Sainak Sohda. Nesfield's list of "clans" includes the Maraiya, Bhains, Sunkat, Gohar (Goh-her) and Soda (or Sohda).

See History of Human Marriage—Westermarck.

² Calcutta Review, LXXVII, 368 sqq.

⁸ Crooke's Tribes and Castes, vol. III, p. 137.

Mr. Crooke's several lists collected from various districts include Maraiya, Bhains, Sunkat, Soda, Goher, Sonra, Untwar. Mr. Crooke' among several other names of divisions mentions the Lohiya or "iron-men" and the Lakarhar or "wood-men." An early note I made excludes the Baid Bhains and Sainak Soda and includes instead the Lakarhar and Lohiya. I think, however, these two latter are merely functional or occupational divisions.

Sherring says, "the Kanjars have seven class," the Maraiya, Soda Sunkat, Lakarhar, Bhains and Goher and Dhobans—of these he says, "the first six eat together and intermarry—and only the first four are found in Benares, the

remaining three inhabit the country further west."

1. BHAINS. Totemic: Bhains = a Buffalo. This is a pure example of an Exogamous totemistic "sept hearing the name of an animal, a tree, a plant, or some material object, natural or artificial, which the members of that sept are prohibited from killing, eating, cutting, burning, carrying, using, etc." The Geharas themselves have suggested to me, and I believe the suggestion has a strong bearing on the origin of totemism, that in the Bhains or buffalo as a totem we have an instance of totemism born of reverence. Though the sept is now inclined to be totemic the name is of occupational derivation; the founder of the family was a Bhainswallah or Buffalo herd. Buffalo is a fairly common divisional name among the casteless tribes. Richardson in his "Account of the Bazeegars or Nuts' says, "they are subdivided into seven castes (sic), viz. the Charee, Athbhyea, Bynsa, Parbuttea, Kalkoor, Dorkinee and Gungwar, but the difference seems only in name, for they live together and intermarry as one people." 2 Bynsa is clearly recognizable as Bhains.

R V. Russell, in Census of India, 1901, Central Provinces, gives one of the Clan Totems of the Ahirs as bhainsa and of the Halbas—Mshia = a buffalo; of the totemic clans of the Boyas of the Deccan we have one called the Yenumalu = Buffaloes. The Balijas (see Census of India, Madras, Part I), the chief trading caste in the Southern Presidency, have an Exogamous clan bearing the same name Yenumalu = a buffalo. The Komatis of Madras have a buffalo totemic clan = Enupa. The Sansias or Sansi Kanjars have three divisions, the Karkhal, Chaidih and Mahais; Mahais = buffalo. The Beriyas also have an Exogamous sept called Bhains, thus clearly establishing a connection between the Beriyas and Kanjars a; it does

1 Crooke's Tribes and Castes: see Article on Kanjars.

Here we have Capt. ichardson unconsciously discovering an Endogamous tribe divided into Exogamous septs "for they live together and intermarry as one people." It was not till sixty years later that McLellan definitely discovered and explained Endogamy and Exogamy.

between the Nats and Sansias and Kanjars. As an instance of the tendency now so active among Gypsy tribes, who as they gradually settle down, throw off their old gypsy habits and adopt Hindu traditions, Mr. Crooke savs, "It is significant that the Bhains section (of Kanjars) of Buduan have changed their name into Baiswar, and are beginning to claim a connection with the Bais Rajputs."

2. BAID BHAINS. Functional and partly Totemic, an offshoot, I believe, of the Bhains.

Baid or Vaid. a physician, an honorific title indicating the reputation the Kanjars like all Gypsy tribes have in the dispensing of quack medicines, simples, love philtres and so forth—the ingredients Geharas commonly use being jungle herbs, oil extracted from sand lizards and other reptiles and animals, Jackal's fat, and Hyaena's whiskers. The whole clan of Geharas lay claim to the occupational description Singhiwallah, meaning 'Horn folk,' who use hores for cupping with, and they have an established practice in all the villages in the Districts. Acting on the principle of a counter-irritant relieving pain they earn as much as a rupee for an operation. Only the Gehara men, and not both men and women as with the Gulgulias and others in Bengal, act as operators, the

method employed being as follows:

About 11 inches of the tip of a cow's horn with a minute hole at the point, a small lump of wax, and a sacrificator or rough lancet complete the outfit. The patient, we will suppose, has a pain in the chest. A small spot on the subject's chest, on or about the seat of the pain, is washed and cleaned, and rubbed hard with the finger, then with the lancet two or three scratches are made and the operator with the singi (horn tip) in his lips, point inside the mouth applies the base of the singhi to the patient's skin and sucks hard for about a minute. Meantime he has the wax in his mouth being worked into a proper consistency, and when a sufficiently strong vacuum has been formed, the wax is adroitly transferred on to the pinhole on the tip of the horn. Two or three taps with the finger nail to see that the suction is quite strong, and the horn is allowed to remain sticking to the patient for ten or fifteen minutes. When removed a cone of coagulated blood is shown as the "poison" extracted! To show how even the Kanjar Singiwallah can adapt himself to the requirements of the West and is not above picking up some of the benefits of Angrezi rule, I would digress further and mention the case of a genuine Gehara Kanjar who was introduced to me with pride as an Angrezi bolnewallah (a speaker of English). He had somehow, as a boy, got in touch with a British Regiment in Nasirabad (Raiputana), and being an adept singiwallah he appl ed his " art of

¹ Crooke's Tribes and Castes, Vol. III, p. 138.

cupping' to curing corns, and in a very short while collected a book full of chits from grateful British soldiers—the British soldier it was explained to me 'always had corns.' Besides the cupping operation which I have described and which when applied to corns had all the appearance of a literal extraction, my friend learnt how to operate on ingrowing toe-nails and the treatment by cupping of cases of flat feet, and so on. He was from his book of chits, when I knew him, a most successful practising Chiropodist among the British soldiers and sailors in Bombay.

- 3. GOH-HER. Totemic, but I am afraid the Totemic value is not very great as catching the Goh or gohsámp (iguana) is pretty generally carried out by the whole Gehara section. The taboo only remains as a suggestion. Mr. Crooke classifies the Goher as an iguana-catcher—this is probably what the orginal totemic taboo has deteriorated into.
- 4. NAKPHŪLA. I was for some time led astray by a Kanjar shikari who called his sept Nákphūla or nag phaná, a common vernacular name for the prickly-pear cactus, and if I had been content not to have this confirmed by more knowledgable members of the clan, I would have put it down as a Totemic Exogamous sept with the cactus as Totem. This is entirely wrong—it is an Eponymous or more correctly a nickname sept whose founder acquired a swollen nose. Vide Sir Herbert Risley's "Peoples of India" for a few extravagant nicknames of founders of septs and divisions But are these names really as absurd as they sound to us? I feel certain that the application of the term nák phhoola, which means "swollen nose," in this case has some definite relation to the very widely observed superstitions connected with nostrils. Nostril Lore, as it may be termed, has a wide influence all over India. One idea is that no individual in normal health

I Nagphūl or Nag Phal = snake fruit, probably from the resemblance of the broad prickly leaf with the flower on top to a cobra with expanded hood. Dr. Burkill has kindly given me the following interesting note:—"There are several species of Opuntia in India; their "origin is America, and the earliest to reach India probably came in before 1750. There is, however, no evidence of its coming whereby to "fix the date.

[&]quot;You speak of Nagphula; but I know rather the name as Nagphana. Nagphana or Nagphani is the general name in Northern and
Central India; and in the mouths of the people the name is connected
with Nag—the cobra and phana, the whole meaning the cobra's hood.
Nagadali is a Madras name and in Tamil Naga means a cobra: the
name means snake's head. Naga-mulla is said to be a Malay name
and there Naga means a dragon.

[&]quot;In 1796 the Madras Government in an order called the plant "Naga kulli or Naga dalli kulli. How and when these vernacular names became attached to Opuntia I do not know. I have no evidence that "they were used for another plant before Opuntia became common in "India."

breathes through both nostrils simultaneously. Breathing through the right nostril indicates the influence of the Sun—through the left the influence of the Moon. There are millions of people in India influenced by Nostril Lore. Where a Brahmin is not available for consultation the action of the nostrils is regarded as an equally good oracle. Any Kahar in the North-Western Provinces knows that he breathes through his right nostril up to twelve o'clock midday, and for the second half of the day through his left nostril; or if he is going out to plough his fields, or is starting on a journey, or is setting out to seek a situation, he consults his nostrils by applying his thumb to his left nostril, and if he finds his right nostril is the active one the omen is propitious, otherwise his adventure is doomed to failure.

If the nostrils fulfil the functions of a sort of vaie mecum substitute for the family Brahmin, an ancestor with a swollen nose surely comes within the scope of Nostril Lore. Crooke mentions Neta as a section of the Badi Nats—a tribe very closely allied to the Kanjar—''Neta, which they say means the "'mucus of the nose,' in which form they came out of the "nose of their first ancestor"—here we have some more undoubted "nostril lore" which probably also has some bearing on the origin of the Gehara sept whose founder had a "swollen nose."

- 5. UNTWAR or UTWAR, of Totemic origin, but also possibly explained by the occupation indicated. Utwar or Untwar = Untwallah = the camel man. The Kanjars appear to be the only "caste" or tribe in India with an Exogamous sept of this name. I am inclined to suggest the name might be taken as an indication of some locality where the tribe was at one time in contact with camels, or were possibly occupied as camel-drivers probably in Rajputana and further North.
- MARAIYA. Mr. Nesfield and Mr. Crooke give the derivation as "worshippers of Mari" -- Mari being a corrupted form of Maharani, the supreme deity of the Kanjar and some allied tribes. But I think the fact that Maraya, or Marriá, is a common Urdu word for a Kutcha hut (Mákán) made of Sirki (Saccharum Roxb.) plastered over with mud, and the fact that till very recently the Kanjars never under any circumstances lived in any thing so substantial as a Márriá, indicates either that the name Máráiya is given to a particular gang or camp because they lived in mud-plastered huts, different in this respect from the rest of the tribe; or that the whole tribe were given the name of Márriá, or Maraiya, because of their peculiarity in living in open air encampments and never in huts or In support of my derivation of the word that living in anything like a house or Marria was for some reason 'taboo,' I have the opinions of several Kanjars who explained that the

Maraiya were so named because they "did not enter into houses"-" Mákán mé nahi ghūstá"; nor would they build houses or live near them. It is well known that these names often have their origin as titles of derision. In Mr. Crooke's Account of the Nats he mentions a section of the Badinats called "Marai, a kind of tree."

SANKAT. Probably occupational, if we accept the meaning as ordinarily understood, viz. Stone-cutter. of the Kanjars and s milar tribes all over Northern India are known to supply chakkis or hand g indstones.

Sunkh or Suk besides meaning stone or stones also means a shell or shells, and we have various exogamous septs bearing the same name. Sukwar is a subsection of the Gulgulias of Bengal. Sakawar is a sept of the Nats; while there is a Santali totemistic sept known as Sankh (a conch shell), the Kurmis also have a totemic sept Sankhowar (shell ornaments), while Sunkhar is an Exogamous gotrá of the Khatiks.

- 8. SOHNRA. Eponymous. The ancestor being one Sohnra who fell asleep among the rushes on the banks of a river, and waking at night, he thought the waving grasses surrounding him were rushing waters. He struck out to swim to save himself, which brought him to his senses, and he thus discovered his delusion. Kás mé ná tirná is a tribal 'proverbial' song. "Do not swim in rushes!" or "grass."
- SAINAK SOHDA. Totemic. Sainak meaning an earthenware plate used to cover the mouth of the earthenware round jar known as a ghará or chatti. Sohda; of its meaning I have been unable to get any explanation. It might possibly be the Punjabi pronunciation of Sohnra.
- 10. RARHI SOHDA Totemic. Rarhi or Rahri being derived from Lahr-a string of saliva-or in detail, that fine string of spittle which sometimes on expectoration reaches like a thread from the lips to the ground. This sounds a fantastic sort of totem, but a simple explanation is that in some mysterious way it was in the form of "a thread of saliva" that the first ancestor of this sept was born. It is of cour-e well known that spitting is sometimes used as a charm, and we have it in

¹ See J A.S.B., Folk Song and Folklore of the Gehara (Kanjars), p. 437, vol. vii, No 7. The following extract from Ar. Crooke's "Tribes and Castes." p. 71. vol. 3, on the Julcha is in cresting: one proverb embodies a curious piece of folklore. "The Julaha lost his way in a linseed field."

Julaha bhuticile ties khet A Julaha is supposed to have taken the linseed field covered with blue flowers for a river and tried to swim it. As a parallel \ r. (hristian (Behar Proverbs 137) quotes from Kingsl y's "The Roman and The Teuton": "A macness from God came over the Herules; when they came to a field of flax they took the blue flowers for water, and spread out their arms to swim through and were all all ughtered defenceles by "He might have added that the same tale appears in No. 149 of Grimm's "German Stories."

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Mungo Parks' Travels, Chapter VI, that Holy Spittle is very firmly believed in by the Christian of Abyssinia.

TRIBAL TOTEMS. The tribal totems of the Gehara Kanjars—quite independent of the Exogamous septs—totems in fact common to the whole section, are first and foremost:—The Dog—anyone killing a dog is outcasted and not re-admitted to the Brádari until he has expiated his sin in the Ganges. Other totems which they are barred from eating, though they may kill them, are the Horse, Ass, Snake, Tiger, Wolf, Cheel (kite), Gidh (vulture) and Parrot. Every other animal or bird in the world may be, and as many as are procurable, are eaten by all Kanjars.

I Gidh = a vulture. The Agariyas have a sept who will not hrow a stone at a vulture, and Sir Herbert Risley mentions a similar sept of Bengal Oraons. The Beriyas have a sectional name—gidhmar or vulture-killer. Such occupational titles of septs seem to indicate an original hunting state, and we have Dhanuk (from Dhanū—a bow). Syarmar = jackal-slayer, gohhār = iguana-catcher. Sampera, the snake man. Bahéliá from Bahali or bahari a falcon, and dozens of other such sectional names occurring among castes who are actually classified by Mr. Nesfield (Brief View of Caste ystem of the N.W. Provinces and Oudh by J. C. Nesfield) as allied to the Hunting State. The status of all these tribes is so low that I would rather declare them to be "Casteless tribes' allied to the Hunting State.



47. A Brief Bibliography of Hindu Mathematics.

By G. R. KAYE.

To those who are not already familiar with, but are interested in the literature of the subject, the following list of works dealing with the history of Hindu mathematics may be of some value. The list does not profess to be complete—indeed such a list must always be open to emendation—but it is hoped that it will be found useful.

It has been somewhat difficult to draw a line of demarcation between works to be included and works that should be excluded from the list. For example, it might be somewhat difficult to justify the inclusion of Montucla's 'Histoire,' Alberuni's 'India,' etc., while Hankel's and Cantor's great works are excluded. An attempt has, however, been made to keep the list within proper bounds, and very few works not bearing directly on the subject in hand are given. Naturally, the works listed vary in value, and their value to the student depends to some extent upon his point of view. To one first tackling the subject perhaps Cantor's Vorlesungen 2 is the best introduction, but the material upon which real work is to be done is contained in the original Hindu works edited by Colebrooke, Kern, Thibaut, Hoernle, Dvivedi, Rangacharya and others. These studied in the light of some knowledge of the history of Western mathematics 3 will give much interest and ample results.

The list now given requires supplementing in several directions; the list of Sanskrit texts requires amplification, and a list of mathematical works, now only in manuscript, is greatly desired.

It will be noticed that the original Hindu works mentioned do not go beyond the time of Bhāskara (twelfth century A.D.), after which period Hindu mathematical works cease to have special historical interest.

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There is nothing really adequate in the English language.
The Indian student is recommended to read at least Gow's Short History of Greek Mathematics, Heath's Diophantus of Alexandria, and, where possible, Woepcke's and Suter's works on Arabic mathematics

(The third book of the second part deals with Hindu mathematics.)

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vol. 1. Ouvrages des Hindous qui ont été connus au moyen âge en Europe, p. 123, vol. 1. Liber augmenti et diminutionis vocatus numeratis diminationis, ex quod sapientes Indi posuerunt, quem Abraham compilavit et secundum librum qui Indorum

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48. A Firman of Emperor Aurangzeb.

By RAJANI RANJAN SEN, B.L., with a translation of the Firman by LIEUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT.

While at Benares last October I happened to come across a document of a unique nature likely to be of much interest to the antiquarian and the historian alike. Messrs. Saeed Brothers, Photographers, of Benares, gave me a photo-copy of a firman in Persian which they alleged to be a true and faithful reproduction of the original, which purported to be an imperial decree addressed to one Abul Hosein by Emperor Aurangzeb and communicated through his son Sultan Muhammad Bahadoor.

All historians have up to time been almost unanimous in giving to Aurangzeb a character directly opposed to what appears from the above document. He has been held to be bitterly opposed to the Hindus as evidenced by his imposition of the Jiziah tax, and has further been reputed to have demolished numbers of Hindu temples at Benares, and erected the mosque over the Pancha-Ganga Ghat in that city with the couple of tall minarets going by the name of Madhoji-ka-deora upon the ruins of the old temple of Beni Madhav which he had destroyed. As it was, I confess, I could not but look upon the document in question without considerable suspicion. therefore thought it proper to keep silence till I obtained satisfactory and authentic informations regarding the existence of the original. On another flying visit to Benares I was enabled to get a sight of the original firman itself through the courtesy of Khan Bahadur Sheik Muhammad Tyab, City Inspector of Police, Benares.

This gentleman, who sent for the document from its present owner for my inspection, gave the following history in connection with its find:—

'In the Munglá Gauri Muhulla of this city (Benares) lived a Brahmin named Gopi Upádhyáya who died about 15 years ago. This firman was in the custody of Gopi Upádhyáya. This man had no son, but had a daughter. His daughter has a son named Mangal Pándey who also lives at Mungla Gauri now. Mangal Pándey had obtained the document from Gopi Upádhyáya along with his other papers. In April, 1905, I held an enquiry under orders of the Magistrate of Benares in the matter of a complaint by Mangal Pándey. Mangal is a ghatia Brahmin, who sits on the river-bank to ply his business as a

ahatia miári, to whose stall bathers in the river resort for various religious observances, and for purchasing various appurtenances of worship. Some Guzrati Bunniah women, he had complained, used to go to the place where he used to sit, and in accordance with a curious custom they followed they would frequently set up a wailing and weeping there. Mangal complained that no one would frequent his ghát to bathe if they were allowed to continue their practice of weeping there in that way. There was thus a dispute between Mangal and the Bunniahs. I asked him to show his documents, if he had any, to prove that he had his alleged right to the portion or space of the ghát that he occupied. He and his servant, one Bábu Nandan, produced several papers before me, and I found this firman among them. It has since then been all along in his possession.'

Such being the occasion when this precious deed was found, as narrated by the Khan Bahadur, I felt convinced of its authenticity, and examined the document carefully and noticed that it was a slightly yellowish piece of old paper with a piece of thin linen pasted at the back leaving bare only a small portion, 43" inches by 4" inches, containing writings and Sultan Muhammad's seal 11" inches in diameter. It is in an excellent state of preservation and the handwriting is very distinct and legible and the letters bold and large. The whole is written in deep black ink, excepting a small portion at the top 3" inches by 2\frac{1}{4}" inches written in red in an ornate style enclosed within some lines in the form of an oblong in the middle at the top of the first page and to the left of the seal of Aurangzeb. The document measures 2 feet $10\frac{1}{2}$ " inches by 1 foot $5\frac{1}{2}$ " inches. On the next page appears in smaller letters the note of despatch through Prince Sultan Muhammad Bahadur with his seal on the right. This seal has some numerals looking like some dates, but are not very legible.

From the papers contributed by Prof. Jadunath Sarkar in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. II, No. 6 (New Series), 1906, pp. 223-267, with copies of two other firmans of Emperor Aurangzeb, in respect to certain Revenue Regulations and fiscal measures and certain rules for the guidance of Shaista Khan in connection with the Government of Bengal, it would appear that this monarch was after all not exactly what he had been represented to be, and that he was rather solicitous for ensuring peace and security to his

subjects.

With a view that further researches may be made in respect to this matter by antiquarian experts, 1 append herewith a copy of the firman (and a translation of it in English, for which I am indebted to Shamsul Ulamah Maulvi Kamaluddin Ahmad, and Maulvi Abdul Latif).

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

منشور لامع النور اورنگ شاه بهادر غازی

محمد اورنگ زیب شاہ بہادرِ غازی ابن صاحب قران ثانی

لايق العذاية والمرحمة ابو الحسن بالقفات شاهانه اعهدوار بودة بداند که چون بمقتضاء مراهم ذاتی و مکارم جبلي همگی همت والا نهمت و تمامي نيت حق طويت ما بر رفاهيت جمهور اللم و التظام احوال طبقات خواص و عوام مصرونست ـ و از روی شرع شریف و ملت منیف مقرر چنین است که دیوهاء دیوین بر انداخت نشود و بتکدها تازی بنا نیابد - و درین ایام معدلت انتظام بعرض اشرف اقدس ارفع اعلى رسيد كه بعض صردم از رالا عذف و تعدى بهنود سكنـــة قصبة بنارس وبرخى امكنة ديگركه نواحى آن واقعست وجمــاعة برهمذان سدنة آنمحال كه سدانت بتخالهاء قديم انجا بآنها تعلق دارد مزلحم و متعرض میشوند و میخواهند که اینالوا از سدانت آن که از مدت مدید باینها متعلق است باز دارند و اینمعنی باعث پریشانی و تفرقهٔ حال این گروه میگردد لهذا حكم والا صادر ميشود كه بعد از ورود اين منشور لامع النور مقرر كند كه من بعد احدى بوجود بيحساب تعرض و تشويش باحوال برهمذان و ديگر هنود مقوطنة المحال ترسانه تا أنها بدسقور ايام بيشين بجا و مقام خود بودة بجمعيت خاطر بدعاء بقاء دولت (خدا) داد ابد مدت ازل بنياد قيام نمايند -درين باب تاكيد دارند * بقاريخ ١٥ شهر جمادي الثانية سنة ١٠١٩ هجري زوشته شده پ فــــازي برساله نواب قـدسي القــاب نوباورا بوستان فلافت كرثمرة شجرة رفعت چراغ دودمان ابهت فووغ زيب شــالا بهــادر خاندان شوكت قرراً بامرة دولت و اقبال طراً نامية حشمت و اجلال گرامي نسب سمى المكان الممـدوح بهـادر ابن محمد اور بلسـان العبد و الحر شاهزاداً نامدار كامكار والا تبـار محمد سلطان بهادر *

ROUGH TRANSLATION OF AURANG JEB'S FIRMAN.

Let Abu'l-Hasan worthy of favour and countenance trust to our royal bounty and let him know that, since in accordance with our innate kindness of disposition and natural benevolence the whole of our untiring energy and all our upright intentions are engaged in promoting the public welfare and bettering the condition of all classes high and low, therefore in accordance with our holy law we have decided that the ancient temples shall not be overthrown but that new ones shall not be built. In these days of our justice, information has reached our noble and most holy court that certain persons actuated by rancour and spite have harassed the Hindus resident in the town of Benares and a few other places in that neighbourhood, and also certain Brahmins, keepers of the temples, in whose charge those ancient temples are, and that they further desire to remove these Brahmins from their ancient office (and this intention of theirs causes distress to that community), therefore our Royal Command is that after the arrival of our lustrous order you should direct that in future no person shall in unlawful ways interfere or disturb the Brahmins and the other Hindus resident in those places, so that they may as before remain in their occupation and continue with peace of mind to offer up prayers for the continuance of our God-given Empire that is destined to last to all time. Consider this an urgent matter. Dated 15th of Jumāda-'s-Sāniya A.H. 1064 (= A.D. 1653 or 4).

49. Note on a Shi'a Imprecation.

By LIEUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT, F.A.S.B., Secretary, Board of Examiners.

The following curse is a species of religious exercise amongst Indian and Persian Shi'as. It is specially repeated on the 9th of Rabi's 'l-Awval, the day on which 'Umar was martyred. It is too a belief amongst the ignorant that if the curse be repeated a hundred times on the rosary, any difficulty they are in will be removed.

رر مدياه مد وي رور و وي ور وي ور وي ور وي ور لعن الله عمر ثم أبابكر عمو ثم عمر نم عمو ثم عمو

or

رالفتتامن من قد في مدرن مرد في قرير مد في قد أللهم العن عبو ثم عبو ثم عبو ثم عبو

"God curse 'Umar, then Abu Bakr, then 'Umar, then 'Umar, then 'Umar'; or "O God, curse 'Umar, then Abu Bakr and 'Usman, then 'Umar, then 'Umar, then 'Umar."

The Persians show their hatred of the three Khalifahs mentioned, by writing their names on the walls of latrines or on the soles of their shoes; this custom is referred to in the "Arabian Nights": vide the story of 'Ala-Ed-Deen Abu-sh-shamat, Chap. XI. Vol. II. of Lane's translation.

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50. The Life and Works of Bahr-ul-'Ulum.

By Mawlavi M. Hidayat Husain, Lecturer, Presidency College.

India has produced many 'Ulamās in no way inferior to Qutb-ud-Dm Shīrāzī,¹ Sa'd-ud-Dm,² Taftāzānī, Sayyid Sharīf Jurjānī,³ Muḥaqqiq⁴ Dawwānī, etc., but few persons are even acquainted with their names, since Indian authors chiefly devoted their attention to philosophical subjects. Biography found no place in their writings, hence there are no accounts of the life and doings of the eminent 'Ulamās. The Islamic banner of sovereignity floated in India for six hundred years. During that period many learned men flourished but Baḥr-ul-Ulūm⁵ surpassed most. His rea¹ name was Abu,l Ayyāsh Muḥammad 'Abd-ul-'Alī bin Nizām-ud-Dīn Sahālī. He was born in A.H. 1144 (A.D. 1731) at Lucknow. His ancestors' native land was Hirāt, but his great-grandfather came to Lucknow and settled in a adjoining village called Sahāl.

In Sahāl there were two families of 'Ulamās; one Usmānī, who claimed their descent from 'Usman the third Khalifa, and the other Ansari, who claimed descent from Abū Ayyūb Ansari. The head of the latter was the famous Mulla Qutb-ud-Din, a spiritual leader. Great enmity existed between the two families. At length the Usmanis surrounded the house of Mullā Qutb-ud-Dīn and put him to death. The Mullā had four sons, viz. Mullā Muhammad Asad, Mullā Muhammad Sa'id, Mulla Nizam-ud Din and Mulla Muhammad Riza. Mulla Muhammad Asad was at that time in the Deccan with Aurangzeb. Mulla Muhammad Sa'id went to the Deccan to seek justice at the hands of Aurangzeb, for the murder of his father. As his elder brother was a courtier, he easily obtained admission to the presence of the Emperor and detailed what had happened. Aurangzeb issued certain orders relative to the murderers of the Mulla, and despatched a firman to the Governor of Oudh to make over the Firangi 6 Mahal to the family of the Mulla.

¹ He died A.H. 710, A.D. 1312, vide Brockelmann's Geschichte der arabischen Literatur, vol. ii, p. 211.

<sup>He died A.H. 791, A.D. 1389, vide the same, vol. ii, p. 215.
He died A.H. 816, A.D. 1413, vide the same, vol. ii, p. 216.
He died A.H. 907, A.D. 1501, vide the same, vol. ii, p. 217.</sup>

⁵ The following books have been consulted in writing the life of this learned author: Journal of an-Nadwa, April and June 1907; Abjad-ul-'Ulūm, p. 927; Hadā'iq-ul-Ḥanafīya, p. 467; Aṣar-ul-Uwal, p. 24; Aḥwāl-i-'Ulamā-i-Firangī Maḥal, p. 64; Moufīd-ul-Mufti, p. 135; and the Encyclopaedia of Islam, p. 584.

6 During the time of the Emperor Akbar it was the practice to allow

It was in this building that Bahr-ul-'Ulum was born. He was educated by his father. At the age of seventeen, he received from his father a sanad of competency. Six months after this his father died, and, as Bahr-ul-'Ulum was unworthy to succeed him, his cousin Mulla Kamal-ud-Din was installed as professor. However, Bahr-ul-'Ulum, with the help of his cousin, engaged himself in acquiring knowledge. When he became proficient he took the seat of his father, which his cousin vacated. He began to deliver lectures and compose books, chiefly on philosophical subjects. Unfortunately, an event happened which forced him to quit Lucknow. He wrote a controversial discourse, which created bad blood between the Shī'ās and Sunnīs. The ruler of Oudh, Shujā'-ud-Dawlah, there-upon ordered his expulsion, and he consequently went to Shāh Jahanpur. 'Abd Ullah Khan was then its Nawab. He was received by the Nawab with great honour and dwelt in his city for some time. But he had to quit this place also, for there arose an internal feud in the district, and 'Abd Ullah was murdered in A.H. 1173 (A.D. 1759). He next proceeded to the Rāmpūr State where the Nawab Fayz Ullāh Khān welcomed him. For nearly five years he remained there, but the rush of students to him was so great that the Nawab was unable to meet their demands. Bahr-ul-Ulum, being dissatisfied with the Nawab, left the place.

At this juncture Munshi Sadr-ud-Din of Burdwan, in Bengal, wrote a letter to Bahr-ul-Ulūm from Bohar, expressing the hope that he would honour the Madrasah in Bohar. Bahr-ul-'Ulūm accepted the offer and went to Bohar. However, owing to the machinations of some designing persons, a rupture took place between the two, and Bahr-ul-'Ulūm proceeded to Madras. Here he was welcomed by Nawab Wālā Jāh. He passed the remainder of his life in Madras, being held in great honour and respect. In Madras he is known as Malik-ul-'Ulama, a fact little known to the people of Northern India. In Bengal and the United Provinces he is called Bahr-ul-'Ulūm, a name not known to scholars in Southern India. He died on the 12th Rajab, A.H. 1225, A.D. 1810. Of his many writings the follow-

ing may be quoted:—

(1) Arkān Arba'a—A work on Muhammadan law, published in Calcutta.

⁽²⁾ Fawā'iḥ-ur-Raḥamūt—A commentary on the work of

foreigners to trade in India for a fixed period. When the period expired, the traders had to return to their native countries, and their immovable property reverted to the Crown. On this principle, a French merchant came to Lucknow and there built a house of business called *Firangi Mahall*. When his period expired he left, and the property was taken possession of by Government. Although this was situated in *Mahalla Chirāgh Bāgh*, it is known by the name of *Firangi Mahall*. a fact clearly shown in the *Firmān* of Aurangzeb.

Vol. VII No. 10.] The Life and Works of Bahrul-'Ulum. 695 [N.S.]

Muhibb Ullah al-Bihari, on the principles of jurisprudence, entitled Musallam-us-subūt; lithographed, Lucknow 1878.

(3) Futūḥāt-ul-Ma'nawi Sharḥ il-Masnawi—A Persian commentary on the well-known work of Jalāl-ud-Din Muḥam-

mad-ur-Rumi; lithographed, Lucknow 1873.

(4) Hāshiya'ala Mīr Zāhid—A super-commentary to Mīr Zāhid's commentary on Kutb-ud-Dīn-ir-Rāzī's treatise on logic, entitled ar-Risāla fit tasauwar wat-tasdiq; lithographed, Delhi 1875.

(5) Hāshiya'ala Mīr Zahid'ala Mullā Jalāl—A super-commentary to Jalāl-ud-Dīn Dawwānī's commentary of Sa'd-ud-Dīn-it-Taftāzānī's Tahdhīb il-Mantiq wa'l Kalām, a treatise on

logic; lithographed, Lucknow 1872.

- (6) Hāshiya'alā Mīr Zāhid'ala Sharh-il-Mawāqif—A glossary to the super-commentary of Mīr Zāhid on al-Jurjānī's commentary on Azud-ud-Dīn al-Ijī's treatise on scholastic theology, entitled Kitāb-ul-Mawāqif; lithographed, Lucknow 1876.
- (7) Hāshiya-alaş-Ṣadra—A super-commentary on the commentary of Muḥammad bin Ibrāhīm Ṣadr-ud-Dīn-ish-Shīrāzī on al-Abharī's treatise in philosophy, entitled Hidāyat-ul-Ḥikmat; lithographed, Lucknow 1846.

(8) Hidayat-us-Sarf—A Persian treatise on the conjuga-

tion of the regular verb in Arabic.

(9) Risāla-i-Tawhid—A Persian treatise on Ethics.

(10) Sharh-ul-Fiqh-il-Akbar—A commentary on the well-known work al-Fiqh-il-Akbar, a treatise on scholastic theology and which is commonly ascribed to Imān Abū Ḥanīfa (d. A.H. 150, AD. 767).

(11) Sharh-us Sullam—A commentary on Muhib Ullāh's treatise in logic, entitled Sullam-ul-'Ulūm; lithographed, Delhi

1891.

(12) Takmila Sharh-it-Tahrīr—Supplement to the commentary of his father on Ibn Humām's work on the principle

of jurisprudence, entitled at-Tahrir fi Uşul-id-Din.

(13) Tanvīr-ul Abṣār Sharḥ-il-Manār—A Persian commentary on 'Abdullah bin Aḥmad Nasafī's work entitled al-Manār on the principle of jurisprudence; lithographed, Lucknow 1877.

51. NUMISMATIC SUPPLEMENT No. XVI.

Note.—The numeration of the article below is continued from p. 691 of the "Journal and Proceedings" for 1910.

95. Gold Coins of Shamsu-d-din Muzaffar Shāh, of Bengal.

In 1873 Sir E. C. Bayley published a drawing of a gold coin of this king. But at that time he could not read the mint and date and consequently was obliged to discuss the question of its assignation at length. These were correctly read by S. L. Poole in his catalogue. The same scholar also published the full name of the king correctly for the first time. Bayley's coin remained an unique specimen for a very long time, and seems to be the only gold coin of Muzaffar Shāh recorded up to date. Recently I came across two gold coins of this prince in Bengal. The first coin belongs to Bābū Debī Prasād Mārwārī, of Bhāgalpūr, and was sent to me for examination with the major part of his collection. It is almost a duplicate of Bayley's coin:—

Obverse.

Reverse.

In ornamental double circle, In ornamental double circle,

the Kalima and ۱۹۹ گزانه

In ornamented circle containing the smaller circle, the names of the four Companions. الدنيا شهش والدين ابونصو مظفر شاه السلطان خلد الله ملكه • (و) سلطانه

The coin was purchased by the owner at Bhāgalpūr. The second coin was found in the ruins of Gaur, and is at present in the possession of Bābū Krishna Lāl Chaudhurī, Zemīndār of Maldah. This coin is an exact duplicate of Bābū Debī Prasād's coin, but is in a far better state of preservation.

It should be noted that the name of Muzaffar Shah differs

on different coins:—

J. A. S. B. (Old series), Vol. XLII, pp. 312-313.
 Catalogue of Indian coins in the British Museum, Muhammadan States, p. 43, note.

698 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [November, 1911.

- as on the gold شمش الدنيا والدين ابونصر عظفر شام السلطان (1) من الدنيا والدين ابونصر عظفر شام السلطان (1)
- (2) Similar, the only difference being in the form of writing the name Muzaffar, which is written in the usual form, see No. 16151 I. M.²
- as on 1. M. شمش الدنيا والدين ابو العقفر مظفر شاة السلطان (3) No. 16158.8

Rākhal Dās Banerji, Indian Museum, Calcutta

96. Some rare coins of the Pathan Sultans of Dehli.

The following coins, which have been acquired by the British Museum since the publication of the Catalogue of Coins of the Sultāns of Dehlī, in 1885, appear to be unpublished:—

1. Muhammad bin Sam.

At (base) wt. 49.5: size 55. No mint; year 59 x.

Obverse.

illa

Around between two concentric

y ali y

في شهور ... نسمين مائة ... مائة

محصد

رسول الله

Reverse.

السلطان المعظم معز الدنيا و الد ين ابو المظفر محدد بن سام

Pl. XVI

There is no mint on this coin, but its Ghorid faloric shows that it was probably struck at Ghazni. It is quite a new type for Muhammad bin Sam, and as the name of Ghiyasu d-din al-Ghori does not appear it was probably struck in 599 A.H. The coin was acquired in Bannū by Dr. T. L. Pennell and presented by him to the Museum.

II. Qutbu-d-din Mubarak.

A wt. 55.7: size 6: square. No mint or date.

H. N. Wright, I. M. Cat., Vol. II, part ii, p. 171.
 Ibid., p. 172.
 Ibid., p. 171.

Obverse. Reverse. مدارك شاة رب العالمين خليفة رب العالمين السلطان بن قطب الدنيا و الدين السلطان السلط

Pl. XVI

This remarkable coin appears to be the third of a gold tanks which would be quite a new denomination. For the obverse legend cf. I.M.C., Vol. II, p. 45, No. 253, and for the reverse No. 263, but I am unaware of any other coin which combines these legends. The coin is evidently undated, and was formerly in the collection of the late Dr. Leitner.

III. Ghiyāṣu-d-dīn Tughlag I and Nāṣiru-d-dīn Ibrāhīm Shāh,
Governor of Bengal, 723-725, A. H.

.R wt. 168.6; size 1.15.

Pl XVI

Obverse. السلطان الاعظم غياث الدنيا والدين ابو المظفو تغلق شاء السلطان Reverse.

السلطان المعظم
نامر الدنيا و الدين
ابو المظفر ابواهيم شالا

both inscriptions enclosed in a double square.

There is unfortunately no trace of a marginal legend on either side, but the coin may be attributed to Lakhnauti, as the fabric is distinctly that of Bengal. It was most probably struck during Tughlaq's visit to Bengal, when "the ruler of Lakhnauti, Sultān Nāṣiru-d-dīn, came forth with great respect to pay homage to the Sultān" (Tārikh-i Fīroz Shāhī; Elliot Dawson III, p. 234). This specimen came from the Sonpat hoard, and was purchased by the British Museum from the Panjab Archæological Survey in 1889.

IV. Muḥammad III bin Tughlaq and Ghiyāṣu-d-dīn Bahādur, Governor of Benyal (restored), 725-731 A.H.

A wt. 165: size 9. Sunārgāon; 728 A.H.

Pl. XVI

Obverse and reverse legends exactly as on the silver coin of the same mint and date described by Thomas in his Chronicles, p. 215, no. 186. This coin is of remarkably neat workmanship, closely resembling the contemporary gold coins of Muhammad III struck in Dehli. The contrast in fabric

between it and the following piece, which is of the usual Bengal fabric, suggests that the dies may have been engraved at the Dehli mint, when Muḥammad, amid many other tokens of his esteem for Bahādur Shah, whom he had just restored, agreed that their names should appear together on the coins.

V. AR 165.5: size 1. Pl. XVI.

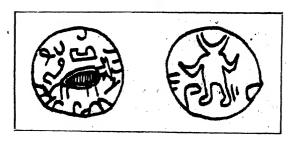
Obverse in square in circle as preceding coin. Reverse in double square as preceding coin. No trace of marginal legend on either side.

This coin bears no remaining trace of mint or date but must have been struck before 730 when Bahādur reverted to a coinage which showed his independence as the coins of that year of hiyāṣpūr show. Both the above pieces formerly belonged to General Cunningham.

J. ALLAN,
British Museum.

97. On an unpublished Mediaeval Coin.

The coin described below came from a find made four years ago near Rūpar in the Ambāla District of the Panjāb. It appears that the actual finders persuaded an acquaintance that the find was a valuable one, and sold the original hoard to him as the result of their representation. When the purchaser discovered that the coins were in reality of debased metal, and that he could get little or nothing for them in the bāzār, he instituted a criminal case against the finders in the Court of the Subdivisional Officer, Rūpar. Some time subsequently my friend the Subdivisional Officer happened to mention the case to me, and I was able to obtain a number of the coins, which included twenty-one specimens of a type of mediaeval currency as yet to the best of my knowledge unpublished.



Metal.-Mixed, probably containing traces of gold.

Weight 190 grains. Size 75 inches..

Obverse.—Figure apparently facing.

Reverse. - Representation of a quadruped standing to right;

round it inscription and symbols.

This coin Î think represents the last stage in degradation of the original Greek design. The obverse shows a human figure copied from the Kushan coins, which though even still more crude, resembles the figures on the copper coins ascribed by Mr. Vincent Smith to the Kings of Kalinga of the fourth or fifth century after Christ—see Vol. I of the Catalogue of the Coins in the Indian Museum, Calcutta, Plate XIV, 14. The reverse design is that of some animal which I cannot identify. The massive body and rope-like tail point to the elephant, but this supposition is negatived by the thin neck, small head, long upstanding ears, and the equally rope-like legs. The animal is strangely like what would be delineated by a modern child in its first attempts to draw.

The coin is die-struck. The above illustration is the result of a mutual comparison of all twenty-one specimens, and is somewhat larger than the coin itself. I do not know the language of the inscription, but it is possible that the two central markings \(\subseteq \) and \(\subseteq \subseteq \) are symbols or monograms.

These coins were accompanied by two or three copper coins of the white Hun chiefs Toramāna and Mihirakula of types I. M. Cat., Vol. I, Plate XXV, 4 and 5, which fixes their probable date at approximately A.D. 500.

DALHQUSIE:

R. B. WHITEHEAD, I.C.S.

19Ĭ1.

98. Some RARE MUGHAL COINS.

Since the publication of the Catalogue of Coins of the Moghul Emperors, the British Museum has acquired a fair number of coins of this series, of which the following appear to be worth notice:—

Aurangzéb

- Metal, Gold.
 Weight, 168.2 grns.
 Size, '85 inch.
 Date, 1112: 45.
 Mint, Ahsanābād.
- Metal, Gold.
 Weight, 109.6 grns.
 Size, '8 inch.
 Date, 1077: 10
 Mint, 'Alamgtrpūr.

702 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Benyal. [November, 1911.

- 3. Metal, Gold.

 Weight, 170.5 grns.
 Size, 8 inch.
 Date, (10) 77: x.
 Mint, Jūnagarh.
- Metal, Gold.
 Weight, 170 grns. and 169 grns.
 Size, 8 inch.
 Date, 1098: 31 and 1114: 46.
 Mint, Zafarābād.

Rupees of Aurangzéb are known of all the above mints, and muhars of Aḥsanābād, 'Alamgīrpūr and Zafarābād were found by Mr. Whitehead in the Bahāwalpūr treasury (N. S. XI). The legends call for no remarks.

Shāh 'Alam I.

Metal, Silver.
Weight, 174 grns.
Size, 9 inch.
Date, 1122: 4.
Mint, Nārnöl.

Obverse.	Reverse.
غاز <i>ي</i>	مانوس
بادشـــاو	ميهذت
عاام بهادر	je .
<u>شالا</u>	سنه جُلُوس ٪
IIPP ASM	ضــــوب
	کار نول ا

For a second specimen see the Catalogue of Mr. C. T. Rodgers's Mughal Coins in the Lahore Museum, p. 199, No. 15.

Farrukhsiyar.

Metal, Gold.
Weight, 168 grns.
Size, 1 inch.
Date, (11) 27: 5.
Mint, Purbandar.

This coin is no. 893, pl. xxii, of the British Museum Catalogue where it is doubtfully attributed to Barell. At this period, however, is never placed as on this coin but written

and there can be little doubt that this adds another to the few coins known of Purbandar. Dr. G. P. Taylor has a rupee of Farrukhsiyar of this mint (Num. Suppl. No. IV, 27, and Catalogue of the Indian Museum, vol. iii, p. lxxiii.

Ahmad Shāh.

Metal, Gold.
Weight, 168.8 grns.
Size, '8 inch.
Date, 1164: 4.
Mint, Lähor.

Rupees of this mint of Ahmad are not uncommon. For notice of the muhar see Num. Suppl. xi, 69.

'Ālamgīr II.

Metal, Gold.
Weight, 167.9 grns.
Size, .75 inch.
Date, 1171: 5.
Mint, Jaipūr (Sawāī).

There is another muhar of this mint of the year 6 in the Indian Museum Catalogue, no. 2183.

J. ALLAN,

British Museum.

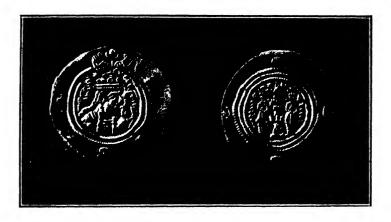
99. A SILVER DIRHAM OF THE SASSANIAN QUEEN PURAN-DUKHT,

Mr. Maneckjee Rustomjee Sethna of Bombay has kindly supplied a photograph, and has also given me permission to publish a description of a rare dirham obtained by him so recently as last January (1911) in the local bazár. When at his request I set to classifying his Sassanian coins, I thought at first this dirham should be attributed to Shirin, the Queen Consort of Khusrau II (Parviz), but further examination revealed the name Búrání, written in Old Pahlaví characters. Evidently then the coin must be assigned to that Púrán-dukht who in her own right reigned over Persia for some sixteen months of the years A.D. 630 and 631. Superintending, like the kings before her, the various departments of the State, she gave proof of high ability to manage imperial affairs. In the exercise of her royal powers she was not duly capable but just, and was also generous in rewarding her councillors and provincial Governors for the services they rendered.

Description of the Dirham.

Metal : Silver. Mint : Rám.

Date: Regnal year sal. Weight: 61.5 grains. Diameter: 1.25 inch.



Obverse:—Bust of Queen to right within two dotted circles with a crown—similar to that of her father Khusrau II, but slightly varied—surmounted with wings. Between and above the wings a crescent bearing a small globe. Outside the circles at the extreme right and left and bottom a crescent with enclosed star. Jewels encircling the crown, and others interwoven with long curls reaching to the breasts. A necklace of two strands. Below the right wing of the crown a star, and below the left wing a crescent with a star in its bosom.

Legend:—To left behind the back of bust (reading from right to left) Pahlavi characters = افزودك 'increase.'

To right, in front of face, Pahlavi characters = بوراني = Búrání.

Reverse:—Within three dotted circles an Atish-dan, Fire receptacle—by European writers commonly called a Fire-altar with flames ascending, and at base two steps, on either side guardian mobeds (Parsee priests), facing front, and each holding in his two hands a long sword, point downwards. To right of flames a crescent, and to left a star.

Legend:—To left, reading from inside, Pahlavi characters = , 'first' regnal year).

To right, reading from outside, Pahlavi characters = c1, Rám (the mint-town).

For the reading اهدي compare the reverse of the coin of Khusrau I (Naushírwán), given in Dorn's Collection de Monnaies Sassanides," Pl. XXII, fig. 1; also for the reading رائ see the Reverse of another coin of that same King in Dorn: Pl. XXIV, fig. 38.

When deciphering this dirham, I was under the impression that none of Púran-dukht's coins had as yet been published: but in a book-catalogue received from Paris in April last there is an entry, "Monnaies de la reine Sassanide Borán ou Pauran-dokht" by M. Ed. Drouin, 1893. This monograph I have not yet seen.

Вомвау:

FRAMJEE JAMASJEE THANAWALLA.

1911.

P.S.—After I had completed the above article my kind friend Mr. Cawasjee Eduljee Kotwall placed in my hands a copy, recently sent him from Paris, of the late M. Drouin's monograph above mentioned. It contains a description of four of that Queen's dirhams of the regnal year 1 (mint not stated), and one dirham of each of the regnal years 2 and 3. Both of these latter coins are from Yezd Mint, whereas the dirham described by me issued from the Mint at Rām. M. Drouin held that the Queen Púrándokht (or as he preferred to read the name Borándokht) reigned from May 630 till October 631.

Ahdi, can be read as Aïoki. Aïoki is preferable to Ahdi.

BOMBAY:

F. J. TH.

1911.

100. ILAHI SYNCHRONISMS OF SOME HIJRI NEW YEAR'S DAYS.

The following list, giving the Ilahī date corresponding to the initial day of each Hijrī year from 1015 to 1037, may prove of service in the study of the coins of Jahāngīr's reign.

Jahangir ascended the throne on 20 Jumada II of 1014 A.H.,

or 18 Aban of 50 Ilahi.

New	Year's	Day of	1015	A.H.	= 20	Ardībihi <u>sh</u> t	1	Ilahī.
	,,	of	1016	,,	=10	,,	2	,,
	**					Farwardin	3	,,
	**		1018		= 10 $= 7$,,	5	,,

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New	Year's	Day	of	1020	A.H.	= 1	Gāthā	5	Ilahi.
	,,			1021	,,		Isfandārmuz	6	,,
	,,		of	1022	,,	=11	,,	7	,,
	,,		of	1023	,,	= 28	Bahman	8	,,
	,,		of	1024	,,	=19	,,	9	,,
	,,		of	1025	,,	= 7	,,	10	,,
	,,		of	1026	,,	= 26	Di	11	,,
	,,		of	1027	,,	= 15	,,	12	,,
	,,		of	1028	• •	= 4		13	,,
	,,		of	1029	,,	= 23	<u>Ádh</u> ar	14	,,
	,,		of	1030	,,	=11	,,	15	,,
	,,		of	1031	,,	=30	Abān	13	,,
	,,		of	1032	,,	=19	,,	17	,,
	,,		of	1033	,,	~10	,,	18	,,
	,,		of	1034	,,	= 29	Mihr	19	٠,
	,,		of	1035	,,	= 18	,,	20	,,
	"		of	1036	,,	= 7	19	21	,,
	,,		of	1037	,,	= 27	Shahrewar	2 2	,,

Jahangtr died on 28 Şafar of 1037 A.H., or 24 Āban of 22 Ilahī.

A list of Hijri synchronisms of the Ilahi New Year's Days of Jahāngir's reign is given in the "Indian Museum Catalogue," III, p. 357, from which the converse list, now supplied, may be easily deduced. In making this conversion the two following Tables will be found useful for ready reference:—

Day of month.

+1

26

Muharram

Safar. Rabi'

ii iii

. .

. .

Day of month. Dhu'l qa'da. Ħ Dhu'l hijja Ramadān Shawwal. Ħ Jumada Jumada Sha, ban Rabi' iv vi vii viii ix x **x** ii χi 89 : l 6 24.

*354

TABLE 1:-For Higri Years

This Table shows the interval (in days) between New Year's Day and each subsequent day of the Hijri year. example, 19 Safar comes 48 days after, or 24 Shawwal 289 days after, the first day of that same year.

^{*} It is only in the Intercalary Year that Dhu'l hijja (xii) contains 30 days.

TABLE II:-For Ilahī Years.

* Gatha.	Isfandārmız.	Bahman.	Di.	Adhar.	Ābān.	Mihr	Shahrewar.	Amardād.	. Tir.	Khūrdād.	z: Ardībihisht.	- Farwardin.	Day of month.
	xii	хi	x	ix	viii	vii	vi	v	iv	iii	ii	i	1
) }	7	37	66 67 68	96 97 98	126 127 128	156 157 158	186 187 188	216 217 218	246 247 248	276 277 278	306 307 308	336 337 338	30 29 28
7;	9	39	69	99	129	159	189	219	249	279	309	339	27
5	10	40 11	70	100 101	130 131	160 161	190 191	220 221	250 251	280 281	310 311	340 341	26 25
١			72	102	132	162	192	222	252	282	312	342	24
3	13	43	73	103	133	163	193	223	253	283	313	343	23
2	14	44	74	104	134 135	164 165	194	224	254	284	314	344	25
l D	16	40	75 76	105 106	136	166	195 196	225 226	255 256	285 286	316	345 346	20
		47		107	137	167	197	227	257	287	317	347	119
8	18	48	78	108	138	168	198	228	258	288	318	348	13
7:			79	109	: 139	169	199	229	259	289	319	349	1,
8	20	50	80	110	140	170	200	230	260	290	320	350	1
5	21	51	81	111	141	171	201	231	261	291	321	351	1
4 3	92	52	82 83	112 113	142 143	172 173	202	232 233	262 263	292 293	322 323	352 353	1
2	24		84	114	144	174	204	234	264	294	324	354	i.
1	25	55	85	115	145	175	205	235	265	295	325	355	li'
)	26	56	86	116	146	176	206	236	266	296	326	356	lie
)	27	57	87	117	147	177	207	237	267	297	327	357	1 9
3	28	58	88	118	148	178	208	238 .	268	298	328.	358	1
7	29	59	89 90	119	149	179	209	239	269	299	329	359	'
3	.30	60	90	120	150	180	210	240	270	300	330	360	
<u> </u>	$\frac{31}{232}$	01	91 92	121	151 152	181 182	211 212	241	271	301 302	331	361 362	į
1 2	3 33	62	93	122 123	153	183	212	242 243	272 273	303	332 333	363	
	134		94	124	154	184	214	244	274	304	334	364	
	35			125	155	185	215	245	275	305	335	365	

^{*} Each year of the Persian era of Yazdijard consists of 365 days, or of 12 months, each of 30 days, followed, at the end of the twelfth month, by 5 days, called Gathas.

This Table shows the interval (in days) between New Year's Day and each day of the immediately preceding Ilahi year. For example, 29 Di comes 67 days before, or 28 Mihr 158 days before, the first day of the next year.

A few examples will illustrate the process of determining the Ilahi date corresponding to New Year's Day of the Hijri year.

- A. l: i: 4 Ilahi = 14: xii: 1017 A.H. (See I.M.C., p. 357)

 by Table I, = 1: i: 1017 A.H. + 338 days.

 l: i: 4 Ilahi 338 days = 1: i: 1017 A.H.

 by Table II, 28: i: 3 Ilahī = 1: i: 1017 A.H.

 or the New Year's Day of 1017 A.H. fell on the 28th
 - or the New Year's Day of 1017 A.H. fell on the 28th day of Farwardin of Ilahi 3.
- B. 1: i: 10 Ilahī = 18: ii: 1024 A.H. (See I.M.C., p. 357), ∴ by Table I, = 1: i: 1024 A.H. + 47 days ∴ 1: i: 10 Ilahī—47 days = 1: i: 1024 A.H. ∴ by Table II, 19: xi: 9 Ilahī = 1: i: 1024 A.H.
- C. 1: i: 17 Ilahī = 9: v: 1031 A.H. (See I.M.C., p. 357),
 ∴ by Table I, = 1: i: 1031 A.H. + 126 days
 ∴ by Table II, 30: viii: 16 Ilahī = 1: i: 1031 A.H.
- D. 1: i: 21 Ilahī = 21: vi: 1035 A.H. (See I.M.C., p. 357),
 ... by Table I, = 1: i: 1035 A.H. + 168 days
 ... by Table II, 18: vii: 20 Ilahī = 1: i: 1035 A.H.

From Abu'l Fazl's list, (corrected in Cunningham's "Book of Indian Eras," page 225), of the Hijrī dates corresponding to the initial days of each of the Ilahī years of Akbar's reign, has been prepared the following converse list, showing the Ilahī synchronisms of all the New Year's Days from Hijrī 964 to 1015.

Akbar ascended the throne on 2 Rabi II. 963, A.H. The next Nauroz, or New Year's Day, fell 25 days later, or on 27 Rabi II. 963 A.H., and by Akbar's order this Nauroz was held to be the first day of the Ilahi era.

```
New Year's Day of
                             964 \text{ A.H.} = 30 \text{ Aban}
                                                                     l Ilah ;
                                                                     \mathbf{2}
                        of
                              965 \text{ A.H.} = 19
                                                                          ,,
                        of
                            966 \text{ A.H.} = 7
                                                                          ,,
                                                                     4
                        of 967 \text{ A.H.} = 27 \text{ Mihr}
                                                                          ,,
           ,,
                            968 \text{ A.H.} = 16
                        of
                                                                          ,,
                              969 \text{ A.H.} = 5
                                                                          ,,
                        of 970 A.H. = 24 Shahrewar
                                                                      7
           ,,
                                                                      8
                        of
                            971 \text{ A.H.} = 13
                                                                          ,,
                                                       ,,
                                                                     9
                         of 972 \text{ A.H.} = 2
                                                                          ,,
           ,,
                        of 973 \text{ A.H.} = 22 \text{ Amardad}
                                                                    10
                                                                    11
                         of 974 \text{ A.H.} = 11
                                                                          ,,
                        of 975 \text{ A.H.} = 30 \text{ Tir}
                                                                    12
                                                                          ,,
                        of 976 \text{ A.H.} = 19,
                                                                    13
                                                                          ,,
           ,,
                                                                    14
                         of 977 \text{ A.H.} = 9,
                                                                          ,,
           ,,
                        of 978 A.H. = 27 Khūrdād
                                                                    15
                                                                          ٠,
           ,,
                                                                    16
                        of
                             979 \text{ A.H.} = 16
                                                                           ,,
           ,,
                                                                    17
                        of 980 \text{ A.H.} = 6
                                                                          ,,
           ,,
```

```
18 Ilah ;
New Year's Day of 981 A.H. = 25 Ardibihisht
                           982 \text{ A.H.} = 15
                                                               19
                      of
                                                    ,,
                                                               20
                      of
                           983 \text{ A.H.} = 3
                                                                     ,,
                                                    ,,
         ٠,
                                                               21
                      of
                           984 \text{ A.H.} = 22 \text{ Farward}
                                                                     • •
                                                               22
                      of
                          985 \text{ A.H.} = 12
                                                                     ٠,
                           986 A.H. = 5 Gāthā
                                                               22
                      of
                                                                     ,,
                           987 A H. = 25 Isfandārmuz
                                                               23
                      of
                                                               24
                      of
                           988 \text{ A.H.} = 13
         ,,
                           989 \text{ A.H.} = 2
                                                               25
                      of
         ,,
                           990 A H. = 22 Bahman
                                                               26
                      of
                                                                     ,,
                                                               27
                      of
                           991 A.H. = 11
                                                                     ,,
                          992 \text{ A.H.} = 30 \text{ Di}
                                                               28
                      of
                                                                     ,,
                          993 \text{ A.H.} = 19 ,,
                                                               29
                      of
                                                                     , ,
                                                               30
                      of 994 \text{ A.H.} = 9
                                                                     ,,
                      of 995 A.H. = 27 \text{ Adhar}
                                                               31
                                                                     ,,
                          996 \text{ A.H.} = 16
                                                               32
                      of
                                                                     ,,
                                                               33
                     of
                           997 \text{ A.H.} = 5
                                                               34
                           998 \text{ A.H.} = 25 \text{ Aban}
                      of
                                                                     ,,
         ,,
                           999 \text{ A.H} = 15
                                                               35
                                                                     ,,
                                                               36
                      of 1000 \text{ A.H.} = 4
                                                                     ,,
                                                               37
                      of 1001 \text{ A.H.} = 22 \text{ Mihr}
                                                                     ,,
                      of 1002 \text{ A.H.} = 11
                                                               38
                                                                     ,,
                      of 1003 \text{ A.H.} = 1
                                                               39
                                                                     ,,
                      of 1004 A.H. = 20 Shahrewar
                                                               40
                                                                     ,,
                                                               41
                      of 1005 \text{ A.H.} = 8
                                                               42
                      of 1006 A.H. = 27 Amardãd
                      of 1007 \text{ A.H.} = 17
                                                               43
                                                                     ,,
                                                   ,,
                      of 1008 \text{ A.H.} = 7
                                                               44
                      of 1009 A.H. = 28 Tīr
                                                               45
                                                                     ,,
                      of 1010 \text{ A.H.} = 15 ,,
                                                               46
                                                                     ,,
                      of 1011 A.H. = 5.
                                                               47
                                                                     • •
                      of 1012 A.H. = 24 Khūrdād
                                                               48
                      of 1013 \text{ A.H.} = 13
                                                               49
         ,,
                                                                     ,,
                      of 1014 \text{ A.H.} = 1
                                                               50
          ,,
```

Akbar died on 12 Jumādā II of 1014 A.H., or 10 Ābān of 50 Ilahī.

Though it seems impossible to glean from the histories of the reign of Shāh Jahān I a helpful list of synchronisms, still the Ilahī date—day and month and year—corresponding to each Hijrī New Year's Day of that reign can be readily determined. One has only to bear in mind that each Ilahī year consists of 365 days, each ordinary Hijrī year of 354, and each Intercalary Hijrī year of 355 In Shāh Jahān's reign the following were the Intercalary years:—

1038, 1041, 1044, 1046, 1049, 1052, 1055, 1057, 1060, 1063, 1066, and 1068.

From the List of Synchronisms for Jahangir's reign we learn that

```
[N.S.]
      1:i:1037 A.H. =27:vi:22 Ilahı.
      1:i:1038 A.H. = 27: vi: 22 Ilahī + 354 days.
                       = 27 : vi : 23 Ilahi - 11 days.
                        = 16: vi: 23 Ilahī of Jahāngīr,
                       or 16 : vi :
                                  1 Ilahī of Shāh Jahān I.
                                   1 Ilahī + 355 days.
Hence 1: i: 1039 \text{ A H.} = 16: vi:
                       =16: vi: 2 Ilahī - 10 davs.
                        = 6 : vi :
                                   2 Ilahī.
Hence 1:i:1040 A.H. = 6:vi:2 Ilahī + 354 davs.
                       = 6 : vi : 3 Ilahi - 11 days.
                        =25: v:
                                   3 Ilahī.
Hence 1:i:1041 A.H. = 25:v:
                                   3 Ilahī + 354 days.
                       = 25 : v : 4 Ilahī - 11 days
                       = 14 : v : 4 \text{ Ilahi.}
                       &c., &c., &c., &c.
```

By this simple method we obtain the following results:—

```
New Year's Day of 1038 A.H. = 16 Shahrewar
                                                                       l Ilahī
                                                                       2
                        of 1039 \text{ A.H.} = 6
                                                                            ,,
         ,,
                        of 1040 \text{ A.H.} = 25 \text{ Amardād}
                                                                            , ,
          ,,
                        of 1041 \text{ A.H.} = 14
                                                                       4
          ,,
                                                                            ,,
                        of 1042 \text{ A.H.} = 4
                                                                            ,,
                                                                       6
                        of 1043 \text{ A.H.} = 23 \text{ Jir}
         ,,
                                                                       7
                        of 1044 \text{ A.H.} = 12
         , ,
                                                                            ,,
                        of 1045 \text{ A.H.} = 2
                                                                            ,,
          ,,
                        of 1046 A.H. = 21 Khūrdād
                                                                       9
                                                                            ,,
          ,,
                        of 1047 \text{ A.H.} = 11
                                                                     10
                        of 1048 \text{ A.H.} = 30 \text{ Ardibihisht}
                                                                     11
                                                                            ,,
                         of 1049 \text{ A H.} = 19
                                                                     12
                                                                            , ,
                        of 1050 \text{ A.H.} = 9
                                                                     13
          , ,
                        of 1051 \text{ A.H.} = 28 \text{ Farwardin}
                                                                     14
                                                                           ,,
          . .
                        of 1052 \text{ A H.} = 17
                                                                     15
                                                                           ,,
         ,,
                        of 1053 \text{ A.H.} = 7
                                                                     16
                                                                           ,,
                        of 1054 A.H. = 1 Gāthā
                                                                     16
                        of 1055 \text{ A.H.} = 20 \text{ Isfandārmuz}
                                                                     17
         ,,
                        of 1056 \text{ A.H.} = 10
                                                                     18
          ,,
                                                                           ,,
                                                                     19
                        of 1057 \text{ A.H.} = 29 \text{ Bahman}
                                                                           ,,
          ••
                                                                     20
                        of 1058 \text{ A.H.} = 19
                                                                            ٠,
          ٠.
                        of 1059 \text{ H.H.} = .8
                                                                     21
          ,,
                                                                           ,,
                        of 1060 \text{ A.H.} = 27 \text{ Di}
                                                                     22
                                                                           ,,
                                                                     23
                        of 1061 \text{ A.H.} = 17
          ,,
                        of 1062 \text{ A.H.} = 6
                                                                     24
                                                                           ,,
         ,,
                        of 1063 \text{ A.H.} = 25 \text{ Adhar}
                                                                     25
         . .
                        of 1064 \text{ A.H.} = 15
                                                                     26
                                                                           ,,
          ,,
                                                                     27
                        of 1065 \text{ A.H.} = 4
                                                                            ,,
                                                                     28
                        of 1066 \text{ A.H.} = 23 \text{ Aban}
                                                                           ٠.
                                                                     29
                        of 1067 \text{ A.H.} = 13
                                                                           ,,
```

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New Year's Day of 1068 A.H. = 2 Ābān 30 Ilahī. ,, of 1069 A.H. = 22 Mihr 31 ,, of 1070 A.H. = 11 ,, 32 ,,

AḤMADĀBĀD: January, 1912.

GEO. P. TAYLOR.

NOVEMBER, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 1st November, 1911, at 9.15 p.m.

N. ANNANDALE, Esq., D.Sc., C.M.Z.S., F.A.S.B., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Mr. H. S. Bion, Mr. J. C. Brown, Mr. F. H. Gravely, Mr. D. Hooper, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Mr. S. W. Kemp, Lt. Col. D. C. Phillott, Mr. G. H. Tipper, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyābhuṣaṇa, Rev. A. W. Young.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Forty-one presentations were announced:

The General Secretary reported that Mr. P. N. Bose, Babu Sasi Bhusana Bose, Sir Lancelot Hare, K.C.S.I., and the Hon. Raja Prabhat Chandra Barua have expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The following six gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Lieut. Cecil A. Boyle, 11th King Edward's Own Lancers, Delhi, proposed by Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Rev. Neil Meldrum, M.A., B.D., second chaplain St. Andrew's, proposed by Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Maulavi Kamaluddin Ahmad, M.A., M.R.A.S., Superintendent, Government Madrasah, Chittagong, proposed by Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Mr. V. J. Esch, Architect, proposed by Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Captain Green Armytage, I.M.S., Resident Surgeon, Eden Hospital, proposed by Lieut.-Col. C. R. M. Green, I.M.S., seconded by Major J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S.; Pandit Dayaram Sahni, M.A., Curator, Provincial Museum, Lucknow, proposed by Babu R. D. Banerji, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper.

Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott exhibited some hawks.

The following papers were read:-

1. Chatu-shatika in Sanskrit.—By Манаманораднуача Наварвавад Shastri.

This paper will be published in the Memoirs.

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2. The Alek religion of Kambhipatias.—By B. C. MAZUM-DAB. Communicated by BABU RAKHAL DAS BANERJI.

This paper will not be published.

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 8th November, 1911, at 9-30 p.m.

COLONEL G. F. A. HARRIS, M.D., F.R.C.P., I.M S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Capt. Green Armytage, I.M.S., Dr. K. K. Chatterji, Dr. W. C. Hossack, Capt. D. McCay, I.M.S., Dr. Indumadhab Mallik, Capt. A. H. Proctor, I.M.S., Capt. H. B. Steen, I.M.S., Capt. E. O. Thurston, I.M.S., Lieut.-Col. E. E. Waters, I.M.S., Major J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

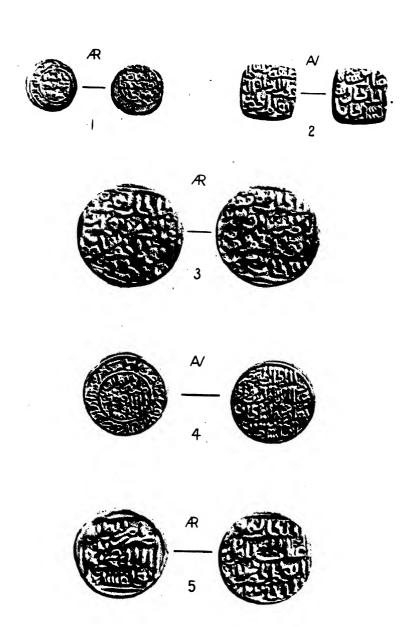
Visitor:—Capt. O. Berkeley Hill, I.M.S.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

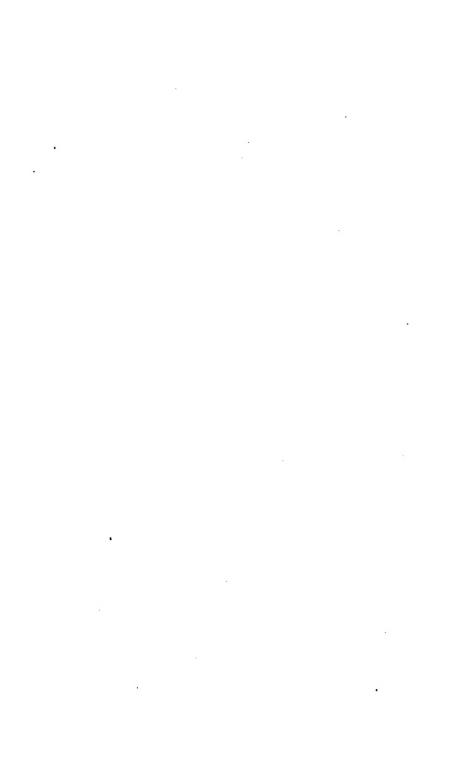
I.—Clinical Cases:—

- 1. A remarkable specimen of Renal calculus which had been removed with satisfactory results was shown by Capt. H. B. Steen, I.M.S.
- 2. A case of congenital Macrodactylia of the toe of the left foot. The affected toes had been amputated.
- II.—The following paper was read:—
- 1. On Hypnotism in Medical Practice.—By CAPT. GREEN ARMYTAGE, I.M.S.

The paper was discussed by the President, Dr. Hossack, Dr. Mullick, and Capt. Berkeley Hill, I.M.S.



COINS OF THE PATHAN SULTANS OF DEHLI.
(Article No. 96.)



52. Chronographic Quatrain by the late Mr. Razoki Fatohi Azoo, Arabic Instructor, Board of Examiners.

Communicated by the Hon'ble Dr. A. Suhrawardy, Ph.D.,

Barrister-at-Law; and Shams-ul-Ulama Shaikh Mahmud

Gilani.

The following quatrain is the last work of a man who undoubtedly ranks as one of the greatest Arabic scholars of his day. The art of writing chronogrammatic verses is common in the East, but the quatrain under review is an example of this art of quite exceptional merit. We are glad to find that this opinion is shared by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, Ph.D., Secretary to the Board of Examiners. The first quatrain of the kind was written by Nāṣīf al-Yāzijī, who composed it on the occasion of the accession of H. I. M. Sultan Abdul Aziz in 1861. But the production of that celebrated Syrian scholar can hardly approach the quatrain of Azoo, as Nāṣīf had sacrificed sense to the exigencies of the chronogram.

The second line of Azoo's quatrain (the third part), in addition to other literary beauties, combines the merits of the famous lines of al-Mutanabbī in which the fourteen im-

peratives are collocated:-

Aqil anil aqti'i ihmil 'alli salli a-'id Zid hashsha bash ha tafaddal adni surri sili.¹

In spite of all the ingenuities in which Azoo's quatrain abounds, the flow of the verse is natural and the meaning quite clear. Take for example the introductory *Persian* line,

I Sayfu'l-Dawlah, the royal patron of Mutanabbī, to whom these lines were addressed, was so charmed with this artful collocation of fourteen imperatives in a single verse, that he granted every request. Under Pardon he wrote, "We pardon thee"; under Bestow, "Let him receive such and such a sum of money"; under Endow, "We endow thee with such and such an estate"; under Mount, "Let such and such a horse be led to him"; etc., etc.

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Rendered into English this means, "By the Grace of God, George V, Emperor of India," but it also gives the year "1910," the date of His Imperial Majesty's accession to the throne.

But alas! Arabic scholarship has fallen on evil days and in spite of an occasional outburst of zeal for the revival of Oriental learning both in India and England, there is no appreciation of genuine scholarship, at least in India. Had these verses been addressed to Sayful-Dawlah, the writer would have been loaded with riches and honours. Had they been written on the occasion of the Sultan of Turkey's accession, the labour of the poet would not have gone unrewarded. But we are afraid that the absence of proper advice to the Government of India did not allow the quatrain to reach His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor, who, with his unbounded sympathy for the East, would undoubtedly have bestowed on the talented author some marks of appreciation of his ingenuity and labour.

A. M. S. S. M. G.

I بِفَضْلِ وَلِيِّ ٱلنِّعَمِ جارج پنجم قیصر هند The Quatrain.

نُورٌ بِنُورٍ مَلَى الْعَـوْسِ اَسْتَـوَى اَدُنْ فَعَـيَ الْفِرِ مِلَى الْعَـرِ الْعَـرِ الْصَحَـمِ الْصَحَـمِ الْحَمَالِ الْسَلَمِ الْعَمْ صِلْ سُرِ الْحَطَ أَحِطَ الْحَطَ مُوالَّةُ صُلْ ضَرْ أَجِرْ طِبٌ حُص أَقِلٌ وَ دُم

PERSIAN.

Bi-Fadli Waliyyi-'n-Ni'am George-i Panjum, Qaysar-i Hind,

1910.

ARABIO.

Nür-un bi-nūr-in 'ala-'l-'Arshi-'stawa-'dnu fa-'uj Bi-dḥilli ra'ni-'l-jalāli-'ṣ-ṣārimi-'ṣ-ṣamami. Vol. VII, No. 11.] Quatrain by the late Mr. Azoo. [N.S.]

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Badra-'l-jamāli-'slami-'-n'am sil suri-'ḥḍḥa ahit Muri-'nha sul dhir ajir tib hus aqil wa-dumi

TT

Translation.

(a)

BY THE GRACE OF GOD, GEORGE V, EMPEROR OF INDIA.

1st Part.

Light has succeeded light on the Throne!

2nd Part.

Approach and dwell under the shadow of high majesty; Of the intrepid, invincible King!

3rd Part.

Lord of perfect grace 1: God save and prosper thee; Ever happy and blessed be thou; Soar 2 to the height of glory; Find favour in the sight of God and man; Compass the world with thy power. 8 Command and prohibit; Conquer thy enemies; Thy people protect; Help them in thy graciousness; And their errors forgive.

Long live the King!

Translation.

(b)

Upon the throne light after light has shone; Let's come and dwell in peace beneath the shade Of that calm Majesty which sits upon Our King, invincible and undismayed.

¹ It is said in a tradition ان الله جميل يحبّ الجمَال verily God is comely in deeds, or an Abundant Bestower of good things: He loveth those who are of the like character (Lane).

² Sur, cf. English "Soar": مبورة المجد " height of glory."

⁸ Cf. Qur'an XVII. 62, ان ربك إحاط بالذاس verily thy Lord hath men in his grasp or power

Oh thou! of perfect grace the King and Lord!
May God be pleased to bless thee evermore,
May He His choicest blessings thee afford,
And may thou to the highest glory soar.

And so beloved alike of God and man Stretch forth thy mighty hand o'er all the world; Send forth thine high decrees to bless or ban And see thy foes to headlong ruin hurled. Protect thy people; gladness to them bring; And live for ever, O most noble King.

III.

Explanation.

The quatrain is divided into three parts. In the first part (Nūr-un bi-nūr-in 'ala-' l-' Arshi-' stawa, "light has succeeded Light on the Throne!), the writer announces the accession of His Majesty, and in so doing happily refers to His late Majesty, King Edward. The king is represented as the equal of his father, the highest encomium according to Arab ideas, and the words are an augury that His Majesty's reign will be as happy and glorious as the reign of His late beloved Majesty. This beginning, in which the subject is at once revealed to the hearer, is in Arabic the rhetorical figure (براعة الاستهلال), but further it contains a quotation from the Qur'an (Chapter XXV. 4), 'ala'l-' Arshi'stawa, "settled on the throne," another rhetorical figure (إقباس) much admired by Arabian writers.

In the second part (the remainder of the first line of the Arabic, but lines 2 and 3 of the English), the nation, in the person of the writer according to the Arabian poetical ideas, is invited to draw near and shelter itself under the shadow of the King's Majesty. This part apart from its figurative language, contains two examples of onomatapæia where the sound resembles the sense; especially is this so in the words as sārimi's samami 'the intrepid invincible (king),' the sound of which is sonorous in Arabic.

The third part (the whole of the second Arabic line or the remainder of the English) contains the nation's address to the king. Firstly, the nation invokes God's blessings on her king, prays that he may be granted a glorious reign and universal dominion, and that he may find favour both with God and men. Secondly, the nation acknowledges the absolute authority of the king and entreats him, while he punishes evil-doers and crushes his enemies, to protect his loyal subjects and graciously repair and forgive their errors. The whole finishes, in a striking way, with a prayer for His Majesty's long life; in

words that emphasize the conclusion, and as such constitutes the figure of rhetoric rarely well executed (حسن الغنّام), making the end as effective as the beginning.

The second line of the Arabic (the third part) abounds in figures, both of grammar and rhetoric; especial mention may be made of the rhyming or final alliteration in islam-in'am,

the antithesis in mur-inha, and the linear word-play in and and and a line is a clever piece of composition in

which imperatives are collocated, after the example of al-Mutanabbi in one of his odes in honour of Sayfu-'d-Daulah. Nicholson has considered this kind of composition of sufficient importance to give the whole of al-Mutanabbi's line, and a full account of an anecdote connected with it.

IV.

The Method of Calculation.

The principal merit of the quatrain is, however, in its chronogrammatical character. The plan of calculation is simple; the number of years is divided in two, one half being allotted for dotted letters and one-half for letters without dots. in each of the four hemistichs of the quatrain. Thus, no less than twenty-eight chronograms are formed (vide Table attached). each giving 1910, the year of accession. The difficulties of such a composition may be gathered from the fact that this is, perhaps, the first attempt of this nature since Nasif in 1861 wrote his quatrain. Orientals delight to exercise their ingenuity in such subtleties, and only the difficulty of the operation has kept poets from making the attempt. In such attempts the correct use of words, and even their complete sense, are often sacrificed to the exigencies of the numerical value of the letters. In this example the words, their sound, sense and numerical value are all exactly what they should be. The translation. of course, gives a very poor idea of the original. The correct translation of these lines has quite defeated me: a literal translation would in English be ludicrous as well as misleading.

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¹ Literary History of Arabia, page 305.

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(b).

The twenty-eight Chronograms.

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14.	The	undotted l	ett ers :	in (2) a	added	to the	undotted	letters	in (3)
15.	,,	,,	,,	(2)		,,	,,	,,	(4)
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17.	,,	dotted	,,	(1)		, ,	,,	,,	(2)
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53. The Vikramāditya Samvatsara and the Founding of the Kushan Kingdom.

By Thos. W. Kingsmill, Honorary Member and Vice-President, China Br., R.A.S.

In no respect is the distinction between the dreamy and metaphysical Indian and his compeer and neighbour the matter of fact inhabitant of China more clearly indicated than in the manner in which either has approached the facts of history. From the first time in which, in the eighth century B.C., the Chinese nation became sufficiently advanced to be able to record in intelligible symbols the course of current events, the chief occurrences of each year have been handed down to posterity by Chinese annalists, even prior to the period when writing as such came to be practised. The method was, it is true, rude in the extreme, being little more advanced than the quipus of the inhabitants of Central America at the time of its discovery, and it was this very habit of keeping records, mere scores as they were at first, that was instrumental in leading to the development of written speech. Prior to this, like many other nations in a similar stage of culture, the more striking events in the national history had been committed for record to the national bards attached to the courts of the various petty princes, who then constituted the hegemony of the Cheos; and it is characteristic of that race that notwithstanding profound changes in conditions and language, many of these ancient ballads are still preserved,in an imperfect state, it is true,—yet so as to be not altogether unintelligible to the modern investigator.

2. It is quite true that in China, as in many other nations, of the men who preceded the Cheos in the possession of the land, we have absolutely no record; but here the seeming exception is the strongest proof of the rule, for the original dwellers in the land which is now China, were of far different race from those immigrants, who, somewhere about the twelfth or thirteenth centuries B.C., entered their future homes from the north-west, and who brought with them their aboriginal folk-lore and myths.

3. Turning from China to old India, we find a very different state of affairs in existence. Although in northern India, at least, a very similar immigration had taken place at a period but a few centuries earlier, and although the immigrants, in a manner not unlike what occurred in China, had taken full possession of the land, and were racially closely akin, from the very beginning their methods radically differed in their conceptions as to the utility of records of the past. Both, it is true, began with

balladry, which with both came to be largely encrusted with myth. While, however, the ballads of China were fundamentally based on historic events, round which from the very necessity of the case became entangled myths of more or less transparent nature, the Indian ballads were from the beginning founded on myths floating in the imaginations of the reciters, and only accidentally did they touch on current affairs. The Indian bard poured out his notes as ever poised midway between earth and heaven, the Chinese—a mere groundling, made the woods echo with his song, and preferred to discourse on the merely mundane deeds of those who found him food and shelter.

- Again, unlike the Indian, the Chinese passed through an intermediate stage of which there do not seem to be any traces left in India, wherein it became possible to keep what were literally "scores" of current events. These had not attained to the dignity of current language, which they had no idea of in any way representing; they had not even attained to the perfection of hieroglyphics, but nevertheless by a system of mutually understood symbols, sufficiently explicit to be understood amongst experts, they had attained a certain facility in constructing annals, or as they called them in the current speech of the day, "springs and autumns," which for some centuries preserved in a tangible form the remembrance of the main events occurring each year. Mencius who lived till nearly the end of the third century B.C. when writing had already made considerable strides, tells us of these records (IV. ii. 21), "When the last traces of royal rule had ceased, and the art of balladry was forgotten, annals came to be made." And it was owing to the fact that Confucius was himself an expert, and took so much interest in the past that he formed a school to learn by heart the import of these scorings, that they were preserved to be written down by a better equipped generation. "I am an expounder," he himself is represented as saying, "not an inventor; I trust and love antiquity, and take my stand behind our old authorities." It was to this feeling of respect for antiquity that we owe the little that has survived of the ancient history of China. The Chinese following the example of Confucius were no inventors, and Confucius did not seek to soar beyond the story of Yao and Shun, which although purely mythical, had its origin in the old cult of the ancestors of the race.
- It was left to a different class of teachers, the Buddhist missionaries from India, to invent the so-called early history of China, which has disarranged the entire chronology of Eastern Asia. This is the return that India has made for the very important assistance lent by China towards clearing up her own history. The period in China between 100 B.C. and 300 A.D. was, partly owing to injudicious rewards offered by the Han emperors for the discovery of ancient documents, and partly owing to the introduction by the Buddhist missionaries of stories translated

from old Indian myths, marked by a great accretion of apocryphal literature, and the age generally being uncritical, the result was the growth of an imaginary history of an "early" China, altogether as untrustworthy as the Brahmanical tales of the corres-

ponding ages in India.

6. In India from the mass of fable floating in the popular imagination, historians, from the time of the revival of letters under the later Caliphs, have sought to make out with more or less success, a connected and intelligible story. The first notices to which any authenticity can be allowed come from the period of the invasion of Alexander, B.C. 326-323. Prior to that date all accounts are mere deductions from myth, generally distorted through Brahmanic or Buddhist influences, and so far affording no foundation for chronology, or historical sequence. Even after Alexander's time, unless we are in a position to correlate occurrences with events elsewhere, or with the evidence of ancient inscriptions or legends on coins, Indian story affords no basis for history, and in the popular tales which pass current as such we constantly come across repetitions and exaggerations which throw a pall of utter uncertainty over the whole.

- One event in Indian history, for the date of which we are, however, entirely dependent on outer sources, forms an exception to the general rule of incertitude, and has afforded the means of fixing within closely approximate limits the dates of many events of importance. Before the departure of Alexander, so runs the Indian story, a youth named Chandra Gupta was presented to him. When in 303 B.C. a Juli took place in the perpetual wars between the "Successors," and Seleucus I was given a breathing space, we find him on the borders of India seeking to resume the conquests of Alexander. Here, then, he met the youth Chandra Gupta, or as the Greeks called him Sandrocottus, who had now grown to be the most powerful monarch in India, with a realm extending from the Ganges into Afghanistan. He also learned that beyond Baktria, still, nominally at least, a dependence, the whole of Eastern Asia was in a ferment, with new kings and new empires struggling for suprem-Warned by these accounts, and convinced of the impossibility of repeating the achievements of Alexander, and recalled by news of renewed disturbances at home, he in the winter of 302-301 made a friendly compact with Chandra Gupta, surrendering all claims on Indian territory, and receiving in exchange five hundred elephants,—which done he returned to his western dominions.
- 8. The realm thus founded by Chandra Gupta had a long and prosperous career. Under his grandson Açoka, still more celebrated than his grandsire, it reached its greatest development, and his conversion to the faith of Buddha forms one of the most noteworthy incidents in the long history of the East. The treaty of 301 enables us to fix these events with almost absolute

correctness: Açoka ascended the throne as nearly as possible in 272, and died 231 B.C. He ruled over the entire of Northern India from the Himalayas to the Kistna, and from Eastern Bengal to the Helmand. As usualin Asiatic monarchies his descendants rapidly degenerated; and about 195 B.C. the Maurya dynasty came to an end.

Meanwhile important changes had been going on else where; about 256 B.C. an officer represented as a Greek, and named Diodotus (a suspiciously Getic name alongside Gothic forms as Theoderic, etc.), who had been entrusted with the government of Baktria, finding his communications with the west cut off, declared his independence. He was succeeded on the throne by a son of the same name, Diodotus II. About 215 B.C. (the exact date seems irrecoverable), one Euthydêmus, represented as a Greek from one of the Magnesias, but who may have been partially of Getic extraction, ousted Diodotus II and ascended the throne. He it was who was instrumental in carrying the Baktrian state to its widest extension. On the collapse of the great kingdom of the Mauryas, as is known that founded by Chandra Gupta, the realm began to break up, and apparently (for here we have little more than the evidence of coins to guide us). Euthydêmus crossed the Hindu Kush, and seized the western part of the Maurya empire, fixing his capital at Ujjain in modern Malwa. This portion of his dominions he placed under his son Demetrius, an able and amiable prince, who subsequently became betrothed to a daughter of Antiochus the Great, Euthydêmus returning to Baktria. This Demetrius was the prince named by Strabo (XI. xi. 1) as having with Menander, hereafter to be spoken of, conquered more nations than Alexander. However that may be, Antiochus III the Great, having, 208 B.C., after invading Hyrkania, concluded a treaty with Parthia acknowledging on easy conditions its independence, moved on towards Baktria.

10. The direct road crossed the lower course of the present Heri Rud, now the Tejend but then known as the Arius, and Euthydêmus prepared to oppose him on the opposite bank; his tactics proved, however, inferior to those of the veteran Antiochus, who succeeded in throwing a force across the river before he was prepared to receive it, and the troops of Euthydêmus were defeated with serious loss. He retired accordingly to his capital Zariaspa where Antiochus besieged him. The siege must have

¹ Zariaspa. Strabo, speaking of the Baktrians, tells us:—Their cities were Baktra, which they call also Zariaspa (a river of the same name flows through it, and falls into the Oxus), and Darapsa or Adrapsa and many others. Strabo here makes one mistake for, of course, Zariaspa and Adrapsa are identical; the difference being only in the method of transliteration into Greek. But have we any additional proof to offer for the identification of Zariaspa with Baktra (Balkh)? The first Fargard of the Vendidad speaks of Baktra, under the name of Bakhdhi "the High

continued for some time, sufficiently long indeed to afford time to both combatants for reflection, neither of whom felt disposed to carry it to the bitter end. There was, in fact, a feeling of kinship between the Magnesian Euthydémus and the Macedonian Antiochus, and the latter began to see the practical inutility of seeking further conquests, while his home affairs were still in confusion: a fellow Magnesian happened to be in a high position in the Seleucian camp, and to him king Euthydémus applied.

What could king Antiochus hope to gain by carrying the war further? It could not be to punish rebellion, for if it were he was no rebel, as it was not from the Great King but from the rebellious house of Diodotus that he had acquired Baktria; and not till long after the Seleucid power in the East had ceased to be effective. The face of affairs in Eastern As a was far different from what it had been in the days of Alexander; for he had only to look eastwards, and he would find the whole of the land up in arms, and there could be no vacancy in Hellenic sovereignty without inviting such an irruption of barbarism as would swamp the entire East. Against this there was only the Baktrian kingdom to act as a dam, and the interects of Antiochus really lay in strengthening, not weakening its power to act as a buffer against the encroachments of the advancing barbarians. Antiochus, who from very similar representations had concluded peace with Parthia, saw how much truth there was in the Baktrian argument, and readily made peace. Euthydêmus surrendered a number of war elephants, afforded the provisions required for the army; and, it is to be presumed, for the Greek statements are not clear on the subject, acknowledged the supremacy of the Seleucian monarch as "Great King." In the final arrangements of the peace Demetrius, the son of Euthydêmus, took part, and made so favourable an impression on Antiochus that that monarch promised him the hand of his daughter.

12. With his northern flank thus secured against invasion, and on the most friendly terms with both Parthia and Baktria, in the spring, apparently of 205 B.C., Antiochus crossed the Hindu Kush; his route must have been by Bamian, which took him over the comparatively easy Unah pass to Kabul, and the safe conduct through these regions must have formed one of the chief stipulations of the treaty concluded with Parthia three years before in Hyrkania. From Kabul he descended to Gand-

Bannered," and there is no doubt that the city of Balkh was intended. The phrase in the original old Persian is Bakhdhi eredhvodrajha, the terminal of which, changed to Darapsa, is plainly the origin of the name as pronounced by the Greeks. The Chinese Shi Ki speaks of the city as Lams i-ch'eng, city of Lamshi, where the *l* represents *r*, the name thus standing for (Da)ram(p)sa. The route taken by Antiochus is plain.

hâra, and thence entered into communication with one of the successors of Acoka. Like his ancestor Seleucus I Antiochus recognized that the time for further oriental conquest was closed, and did not apparently make any warlike display; he, however, requisitioned for elephants and stores, quoting, most likely, the precedent of Seleucus and Chandra Gupta; and the king, doubtless well satisfied at being let off so easily, agreed to the demand. The kingdom of Pâtaliputra founded by Chandra Gupta was still in existence, though shorn of its western provinces, and in a state of decay. The Greek historian Polybius gives as the name of the reigning monarch Sophagesenus, which we may read as intended for Sanskrit Cubhaga-sena. Now the Brahmanic lists of the dynasty give at this period as the name of the monarch Soma-carman; these lists made out long subsequently to the period represented make, however, frequently sad havoc of the correct name, and it is not improbable that this may have happened in this instance. Sophagesenus promised also a sum of money, and Antiochus left one of his officers to receive it when collected. Meanwhile Antiochus in the winter of 205 set out on his homeward journey. apparently along the course of the modern railway by Quetta and Kandahar, and thence down the course of the Helmand. whence he crossed the desert in the footsteps of Kraterus to Karmania. Without the good-will of Parthia the journey, with an army at his back, through these regions would, of course, have been impracticable; but all three states - Parthia, Baktria, and the Mauryan Kingdom-were no doubt heartily glad to be rid of Antiochus, and expedited rather than hindered his progress.

13. So far the course of events has been fairly clear; and we have with a considerable degree of confidence been able to follow the footprints of the Great King in his visitation of the eastern provinces of the once Seleucidan Empire, whose independence, real enough before, was now formally acknowledged. So ended the empire of the great conqueror Alexander in Eastern Asia; yet, unlike most other empires founded by the prowess of one man, the conquests of Alexander left behind them a record, not of blood or destruction, but of improved methods of government, a distinct advance in civilization, and an increase in the well-being of the subject nations. Greek art and Greek culture took, in fact, a firm foothold in these regions, which has affected even to the present day the arts of architecture, of painting, of ceramic ware, etc., and can be traced even as far as far-distant China after the lapse of more than two thousand years.

14. A new figure, however, now appears on the scene in the person of the king known to the Greeks by the name of Eukratidas, and with him begins a new era in which we miss even the imperfect glimmer of the Greek historians. As to who this Eukratidas was, or whence he came, we are absolutely without

anv information; he has by historians been reckoned as a Greek successor of Euthydêmus, yet, except that in the few cases where his name is mentioned he has been given a Greek name, there is positively no other evidence available. A hint in Justin (Chap. xli. 6) that at one time he was besieged by Demetrius, is almost the only evidence we have that there was a contest for the crown of Baktria. He was a contemporary, in his later years at least, of Mithridates I, the great king of Parthia, to whom he lost much territory, and he succeeded the Greek Euthydêmus. curious feature of these eastern kingdoms at the period has never received the consideration at the hands of historians that it deserved; and that is the fact that reigning over two or more separate peoples most of the kings bore duplicate names, as they addressed themselves to one or other nationality. The Parthian king who was Mithridates to his Iranian subjects, was Tiridates (Tyrlac?) to his Parthian. Parthia was, never any more than Hellas, a territorial designation, and had no boundaries marching with Hyrkania or Media. Where the Parthian was, in fact, that was Parthia, so at one time the name appears as simply implying the districts along the flanks of Mount Korônos, while at others it applies to the whole extent of the Parthian Empire. To the East the country was never known as Parthia, the Chinese always speak of it as Ansi(k), which with their limited means of transliteration is to be read as Arsak, i.e. the country of the Arsaks or Wehrc-iskas, that being the meaning of the title. So of its capital; not understanding this, the geographers have persistently duplicated it, not comprehending that Greek Hekatompylos (for old Persian Cataraochana, --now Shahrud) was identical with Parthian Hundrakerta, transformed in Perso-Greek mouths into Zadrakarta. This duplication, or in cases triplication, in Greek, Getic, or Sanscrit, as Greek, Skyth, or Indian was addressed, is still more marked when we come to the Indo-Skythian lands; and the result has been the confusing duplication of royal names, which has been interpreted as implying an almost infinitesimal multiplication of kingdoms, territories, dynasties.

15. Eukratidas was, then, we are to believe, at war with Euthydêmus; many circumstances would lead us to surmise that he was a Get, and with the assistance of his compatriots rebelled against the Greek rule of the other. Demetrius, the able and warlike son of Euthydêmus, had been extending the bounds of the Baktrian kingdom at the expense of the enfeebled Mauryadynasty, as viceroy for his father; and had left the capital of the country unguarded, and Eukratidas, whatever was his real name, had taken the opportunity to revolt. Greek seems, from the introduction of many Greek words through Baktria into Chinese, to have become the official language of Baktria; and the new king would, as a matter of course, have adopted a Greek reigning title; his own name not unlikely was some form

of Godræd, which he simply, according to current custom, translated into Eukratidas. Having established himself at head-quarters, and with the prestige attaching to the name of king, he carried the insurrection into the Panjab, and with his fresh troops overcame the exhausted levies of Demetrius, who disappears from view. Consonant with this view Eukratides seems to have been born quam prox. 215 B.C., and on the death of Euthydemus in 172, he being then 43 years old, to have taken advantage of the absence of Demetrius in the Panjab, to have revolted. The pretext was almost certainly that in the peace made by Euthydemus with Antiochus, the former had not only weakened the state by the present of all the available war elephants, but had acknowledged the overlordship of the Seleucidan sovereign. Demetrius, too, had married the daughter of Antiochus, hence the invasion of the Panjab would have become a patriotic duty.

16. This invasion of the Punjab has, it is interesting to recall, left permanent traces in these regions in the so-called Aryan, really Turanian, i.e. Getic aspect of the chief races still existing. Even in Alexander's time folk of the Getic type were already prominent on the Five Rivers. The only important resistance met with by Alexander on his invasion was by the people mentioned by Arrian (V. xxii) as $\kappa a \theta u i \omega$ of Sangala near the Chenab. These people are described by all who have met them as a tall, handsome, warlike folk, proud of their descent and not prone to mix with the people about them. Their women did not marry till they had completed their full growth, and then, utterly unlike all the surrounding people, chose their own husbands. With them were associated closely cognate tribes, whom Arrian calls Oxydrakae and Malli, in which we can hardly fail to find Tokhars and Madhs. These folk in Alexander's time formed a separate colony: they were, as he states, αὐτονομοι. and owed no allegiance to the various states around. The Greek Kathae-i of course exactly corresponds to the Turanian, using that much-abused term as mainly equivalent to the modern Teutonic, Geàt; and Geàt as we shall see was the eponym of all the Getic peoples, largely represented at the period in all these countries. The name is found in the Yâdavas, the descendant of Yadu, which seems to be only a modified form of Geat; in the Yuehti of the Chinese; and has survived in the Jats of the Panjab to the present day. In the invasion of Eukratidas his Getic followers found a ready welcome from their relations already established in the Panjab. This fact considerably modified the entire history of the period.

Fortunately at this period the Chinese records of the time come to our assistance, and from the historians of the Han Dynasty we gain much valuable information. Unfortunately

¹ Cf. with regard to these, Cunningham, Archaeological Reports, Vol. II, p. 33, seq.

owing to ignorance on the part of the early translators, principally the French writers of the eighteenth century, who have been blindly followed by their successors of the nineteenth; and also owing to the habit of taking for granted the statements of the later Chinese compilers, as for instance Ma Twanlin's "Mirror of History," a work of the thirteenth century, to the neglect of the originals; the records of the Han historians have been so much distorted that very false ideas of their contents have been accepted as genuine history. The Shi Ki (Record of History), Ssema T'sien's great work (Chap. CX), gives a letter sent by the Shenyu (T'ientse) of the Hiung Nu Turks in the year 178 B.C. to the Han Emperor Wen Ti, which is worth quoting at length:-"The supreme Shenyü by the Grace of Heaven, to the Hwangti." sends greeting:—Formerly there existed between us a treaty of peace, and our people lived in harmony. For some time the officers in charge of the Marches have been encroaching, and have used insulting language towards the Right Yen-Wang, which he bore without rejoinder. More recently it has become a matter of anxious deliberation between him and Nansse, Marquis of Lü, how best a breach of the peace can be avoided, and the fraternal intercourse of the people preserved, and on more than one occasion letters have passed with your Majesty. Lately I despatched an envoy, but he has not returned, nor have I received any communication; while some of the lower officials have committed breaches of the agreement, and attacking the Right Yen-Wang have forced him into the western regions, where he was attacked by the Yuehti.

18. Heaven, however, was propitious to our arms; our forces were well found, our cavalry brave and powerful, and in the end we totally defeated the Yuehti, carrying fire and sword through their lands; and pacifying the country up to Leolan (Cherchen).

19. (In consequence of our success) the Wusun (Asiani) and the (H)Ugrit (Sakaraegli, afterwards Wigurs), and the neighbouring peoples to the number of six and twenty, have joined our confederacy; and all the "Bow-bearing" nations are now united as one family. Having now pacified all the northern regions, it is our earnest wish that an end should be put to hostilities, and that there should be no more quarrellings; so that we may send our horses to pasture and we should enjoy peace as in the times of old:—That our young men may grow up to manhood, our old should live in peace, and quiet and harmony prevail from age to age."

20. The CXXIIIrd Chapter describes how the Yuehti had been attacked by the great Turkish Shenyü who had utterly defeated them; killing their king, whose skull he converted into a drinking cup, and forcing the people to flee their country and take refuge beyond the ranges at the head of the Oxus. The explorer Chang K'ien in 123-124 B.C. found them in the country

between the Tukwei Shui (Surkhâb) and the Oxus; their country was bounded on the south by districts lately conquered by the Tokhars, and on the west by Parthian territory. Consequent on their defeat at the hands of the Hiung Nu they had emigrated, and passing by Yarkand had attacked the Tokhars and defeated them. They followed the course of the Surkhâb, and established their royal residence on its northern bank, apparently at Gharm, which we shall meet subsequently. As the defeat of the Yuehti had happened at the hands of the great Shenyü Maotun, and Maotun died in the 10th Moon of 179 B.C., these events must have occurred in the winter of 180-179. The date is important.

21. Now Tokhars, Yuehti, and Wusuns, we have the authority of the Han historians for stating, spoke the same language, only dialectically different, and were mutually intelligible. To them, though not specially mentioned, we may add the (H)Ukrits, whom we must identify with the Sakarauli, really Çaka(r)-aegli, so that we can at once appreciate the position before the amalgamation of the five petty states resulted in the formation

of the Kushan kingdom.

22. The king Euthydêmus with whom Antiochus Et entered into the treaty, must, then, have been the last of the Greek line of the kings of Baktria, and associated with him, according to the plain reading of the Greek accounts, was his son Demetrius, whom he subsequently placed in charge with regal rank of the provinces acquired from India in the Panjâb. From the above description of the position by the contemporary Chinese historians we can readily comprehend the wisdom of his advice to Antiochus, that it would be expedient to make terms, rather than bring on himself the hostility of the Yuehti and their associates. Eventually it happened that the destruction of the Greek kingdom came from Eukratidas, hitherto classed as himself one of the Greek sovereigns but more correctly to be described as the founder of the first of the Sakan (Çakan) dynasties.

23. However, that was cir. 140 B.C. Eukratidas was growing old, and his folk wearied with contests, as Justin XLI. vi. tells us, with Sogdians, Arachoti, Drangae, and Arian Indians, and at the last attacked by the Parthians, began to feel their very blood oozing out, and to be losing not so much their hold on the kingdom as their actual liberty. Under these circumstances his son, whom Eukratides had associated with himself on the throne, deeming his father a public enemy, killed him on the road, driving over his body and refusing it sepulture. Regarding this parracide, we have Strabo's authority for the statement that it was considered honourable amongst the Skythic peoples that when a man grew old and helpless he should be killed by the more active survivors, and the history of these kingdoms is full of instances. When in the days of Gautama, king Ajātasatru put his father, the old king Bimbisāra, to death,

patron as he was of Gautama, the Buddha could not find it in his heart to condemn the act. The Greek historians give the son and successor the Greek name of Heliokles; his real name was most probably some form of Gabalisc, the Herakles of these Getic peoples; like Demetrius his name disappears from history, only, however, to reappear in another form, and in another locality, but still a reigning dynast.

24. Notwithstanding the death of his father the affairs of the Baktrian kingdom show little amelioration, Mithridates of Parthia attacked it, and of the districts wrenched from it formed two new provinces, Turiwa and Aspiônus, while the northern frontagers also showed signs of longing for the fertile districts of Baktria itself. At first Eukratidas had been successful in the war with Demetrius, and had seemingly wrenched from him all his conquests in the Panjâb: we find Strabo, quoting from the Parthian history of Apollodorus, asserting, indeed, that Eukratidas had a thousand cities subject to his authority, but this very extension of his rule to the south of the Paropanisus was a source of weakness at home, and must have contributed to his eventual fall.

25. The T'sien Han Shu 2 gives us some interesting particulars of the distribution of the Getic tribes immediately after their immigration into these regions.—After their defeat at the hands of the Shenyü Maotun, they had passed by Tayuen (Yarkand), and going west had encountered the Tahia (Tokhars). whom they had subjected. Here the new arrivals more or less amalgamated; at all events, they are described as living under five Ling-heo, a term which we may render by Margrave. These Margravates were:—(1) Hiumi, which we may identify with Harm or Gharm on the Surkhab; (2) Shwangmei, Samar-kand?: (3) Kweishwang or Kweisiang, Kesh-wara, i.e., Kushan; (4) Ya(t)t'un, Vardhun, Ferghana?; (5) Kaofu, Kabul,—in the Heo Han Shu the last is more correctly named Tumi(t), i.e., Darwaz. They were distinctly territorial divisions rather than tribal: but although the people all belonged to the same stock there was evidently much internecine jealousy. The most powerful of the states, that of the Yuehti, could, according to the T'sien Han Shu, turn out at least 100,000 bowmen, so that they were by no means insignificant antagonists that had to be faced by the successor of Eukratidas. Although Mithridates of Parthia had nominally formed these districts into his Province of Turiwa,

^{1 (}Strabo XI, 11. 2). There is considerable difficulty in identifying these provinces; on merely phonetic grounds I should be disposed to connect Turiwa with the Chinese Tayuen, i.e. Tayar-(kand) or Yarkand, the "Stronghold of Turiwa": Aspionus, i.e. Acpayona, would probably be the rich horse-breeding districts about Merve; the names never become permanently attached to the districts, and in a few years ceased to exist.

² Chap. XCVI, pt. 1 (Si Yih).

there is no evidence of the province having ever materialized; and it is more likely that the migration of the tribes occurring at the same period, he never was able to establish his authority in these districts. Unfortunately we are left without any record of what actually occurred, but from the few glances we obtain, it would seem that these restless tribes kept pressing on the north of the Baktrian kingdom; and in the end compelled the son of Eukratidas, the Hermaius of the coins, to evacuate his territory still held in Baktria proper, and remove the capital of the kingdom into the Panjâb, where we find it some twenty years or so later.

The Kaofu mentioned by the T'sien Han Shu, with its capital T'unsien. is seemingly impossible to place; it cannot be identified with Kophênê, and may mean the district about Panjshir; the Chinese work mentions it as the first district in these regions with which China had communications:--" It was during the reign of the Han Emperor Wu, that a commencement was made, but the extreme distance from China renderedit impossible to support it with a sufficient body of troops. Under the circumstances the King Wu-t'eo-lao (Adal(?)kides) more than once committed outrages, and went so far as to kill the envoy sent from the Hwangti. On Wut'eolao's decease his son succeeded, and took steps to send a tributary mission to China. The Chinese official in charge of frontier affairs, by name Chung, undertaking the protection of its members. The king afterwards being angry with Chung, and this coming to Chung's ears, the latter entered into a plot with Yam-mu(t)-fu (Ambhudra-bhoja?) son of the king of Yung-ku(t), Karkot, to attack Kipien, kill the king and place Yammufu on the throne. A little consideration will explain this; the Kipien mentioned was evidently the district north of the passes called Kapisene in Cunningham's map rather than the valley of the Kophes; Karkot was the Panjkora valley, where a place called Kalkot is marked on modern maps. Wut'eolao was then the king called on his coins Antialkides, who by Lassen was presumed to be one of the Greek kings of Baktria; really he was only the petty sovereign of the district about Charikar. But Antialkitis seems itself only a transformed Getic name: Grimm (Teutonic Mythology, Chap. iv) gives Alkis, on the authority of Tacitus as a Gothic divinity, and the Chinese would seem to point to a form Ad-Alkis as the real name.

27. Having so far explained the position of affairs up to the death of Eukratidas and the accession of his son Heliokles, we may with advantage turn to the Heo Han Shu, our only original and practically contemporary authority, for the foundation of the Kushan, otherwise known as the Indo-Skythic Empire. A concise but clear account is given in The Si Yih Ch'wan (Record of Western Dependencies), which forms Chapter lxxxviii of that work. As the chapter has been much mistranslated, a literal version of that portion referring to the Greater Yuehti is appended:—"Country of the Great Yuehti. This territory on the

west marches with Parthia; the chief town is Lamshi Ch'eng (as already explained equivalent to Darapsa, i.e. Balkh), Parthia being distant 49 days' journey. Eastwards to Ch'ang (Ch'angan, now Singan fu) the distance is 6,537 li; to Lohyang (the then Chinese capital) 16,370 li. There are (in the country) 100,000 homesteads, 400,000 mouths, and some 100,000 armed troops.

Originally the Yuehti, having been broken up by the Hiung Nu (Turks), emigrated to the land of the Tahia (Tokhars) which they divided (as follows):—(1) Hiumi; (2) Shwangmei; (3) Kweishwang; (4) Yat'un; (5) Tumi; five (territories) in all, each under a margrave. (These divisions have been already explained). A hundred years or so afterwards (B.C. 79, quam prox.) the margrave of Kweishwang, K'iutsaufu (supra), attacked and deposed the other four, and established himself as ruler, assuming the title of Kweishwang Wang (Keshwara Wano), i.e. King of Kushan, or the Keshwaras. Subsequently he made war on Parthia and wrested from it the territory of Kaofu, annexing also Pu(k)ta (Peukelaotis) and Kipien (Kophênê, the valley of the Kophes). Having established his rule over these lands, K'iutsaufu died at the age of about eighty. His son Ch'imkao Chantai succeeded him on the throne; he afterwards annexed northern India, placing it under the rule of a single officer as Viceroy. From this period these newly annexed districts came to bear the (official) title of the Fusheng (Parashawar) Dependency. The entire was known as the Kushan Kingdom, the equivalent of what was originally called by the Chinese Greater Yuehti."

The only doubtful factor here is the name of the king, written in Chinese 🐩 🏠. Here the two first characters stand for Gi-tul; the third is more doubtful. As written it would have the force or ku(k), the last letter not having been actually sounded in northern China at the time of the later Hans. I am, however, rather disposed to think that the character really intended was k'ü(t) ot k'wu(t) 宿间, where the old initial was g or f, rather more inclined to the latter. I have rendered it as fu, phonetic for final f. The name, practically certainly, was Ga-tulf. Now Yule (Introduction to Wood's Journey to the Source of the Oxus, 2nd ed., xxvii), speaking of the contorted legend (founded, however, on fact) of Shah Kataur, draws attention to "that singularly Teutonic-looking name Katulphus, which appears in Menander as that of an Ephthalite." name, there is no doubt, is the same as that called on the coins Kadphises or Kadiphes. A later account of the crossing of the Hindu Kush, and the annexation of North-West India (the Wei Shu), calls the leader Kitolo, which would likewise answer to Gitul, and Cunningham (Archae. Rep. ii) mentions the name as "Kieu-teu-fa" and translates it as "Good charioteer and archer." He, however, makes a mistake in suggesting that *Kadphises* is only a title, a mistake which shows how carefully he has weighed the evidence; it will be seen that the word used generally in connection with the name *Kadphises*, namely *Kanishka*,

is really the title.

Much of the evidence usually quoted with regard to the Kushan Kingdom has been drawn from coins, and coins as contemporary evidence are of the highest value. More than most other human documents their evidence has to be read with caution, largely on account of the necessarily condensed or abbreviated character of the inscriptions rendering the meaning doubtful, even when the lettering is distinct. The early Kushan coins are a case in point. As originally read, the inscription on the most important of these coins was as follows, in Greek letters: -PAONANOPAOKOPANO \mathbf{or} PAONANOPAOKANHPKI-KOPANO, and as the Yuehti were presumed to be a Turkish people, the language was supposed to be some as yet unnoticed form of Turki. Further investigations showed that the letter taken to be Greek P must be pronounced as sh, so that the full formula became SHAONANOSHAOKANESHKAKOSHANO; but still under the mistaken presumption that they were dealing with Turkish tribes little could be discovered. As shown above, the presumption rather was that these inscriptions would be Greek or Getic, but little was to be got from either. The name Kushan applied to the country of the invaders, however, reasonably supplies a meaning for the last part of the legend as an adjectival form of Kushan, and naturally then there would be alongside it some word denoting king or kingdom. Unfortunately there existed a very late (13th century) work called the Raja Gandharya, and this work spoke of three brothers-Kanishka, Hushka, and Jushka—having occupied in succession the Indo-Skythian throne. It never seems to have occurred to the translators that they were here simply in face of a favourite trick of Semitic transcribers in all ages from the time of Lamech's three sons, Jabal, Jubal and Tubal. Assuming that the Yuehti were Gets, for which there was ample authority, Cynisca (Kaniska) or Cyninca (Kanerka) would have been a very natural form for king, so that the two last words would have read Kaneshka Koshano, -King of Kushan. We can trace equally plainly the raison d'être of the rest of the legend. Kophênê and Gandhâra had been under Parthian rule, and the official speech of these would have been old Persian; as a fact some of the coins preserved do actually preserve the title SHAHAN SHAHI, Shah of Shahs. In this case an older and presumed more classical form was employed; we can easily supply, without any manipulation of the preserved letters, the abbrevia-The title adopted from the previous Parthian occupation was (K)Sha(tra)onam (K)Sha(tr)o,—so that we are justified in reading Khshatraonam Khshatra, Kyniska Koshano,—Shah of Shahs, King of Koshan.

- 31. The coins are excessively rude, and the only variation from the accepted reading asked for is to read no as m, which looking at the photographs of the coins is quite feasible. Cunningham (l.c.) thinks a title may have been taken for a proper name, and suggests that Kadiphes is the title; the surmise is correct, but he has transposed name and title: Kaneshka was the title, and Kadiphes the name. Now Kadiphes, as he tells us, meant "Good Goer," and here at once we have a clue; Good-goer in Getic speech may be rendered as Godhlef, a near approach to the Chinese. More likely the word was really Geat-hlef, a characteristic personal name amongst these forerunners of the Goths; the Chinese author looking for a meaning easily taking it for Good-goer.
- 32. But we get other legends in connection with this Kadiphes or Kadphises; one has been read as Kozoulo Kadphises; not having a photograph it is impossible to speak with certainty, but it seems most probable that the form Koshano Kadphises was really intended. Hermaeus occurs on the other face, which may imply that Geathlef temporarily adopted that name. Another legend, read Hima, or Hoema Kadphises, requires, however, further explanation. Geathlef, as we may assume his name to have been, we have seen, conquered the other four margravates, and one of these was Hiumi, i.e. Gharm. Now these coins are allowed to be early, before the crossing in fact of the Hindu Kush, so that Geathlef may have called himself of Kushan or of Gharm as he issued the coins in one or other principality. The fact does not seem of importance, and is quite reconcilable with what we otherwise know.
- One fact of importance, however, we learn from the Chinese story above given. Geathlef lived to old age, the Heo Han Shu says about eighty, the authority quoted by Cunningham says eighty-four. When he died he left the kingdom to his son, whom the Chinese author, going as close to the sound as Chinese permits, calls Ch'imkao Chantai, where the tai is in the lower tone series, implying that the first letter was d. We can have no hesitation in identifying this with Sanscrit Jambaka Chandra. As explained before, these sovereigns had usually at least two names as addressed by subjects of one or other nationality; his Getic name, in this case not mentioned, was probably Geathlef, the same as his father's. With the assistance of the Chinese we can begin to form a rough chronology. If Geathlef annexed the other four margravates in 79 B.C. we may approximately fix his invasion of Kophēnê and Gandhâra as having occurred in 75. If he died in 25, he would apparently have been born in approximately 190 B.C., so that at his conquest of the four margravates he would have been 30 years of age. His son Geathlef II would then have acceeded in 25 B.C.—a not unlikely date, as we shall see.
- 34. Having cleared off the bugbear of the imaginary three brothers, which has obscured the view of a most interesting period

of the history of the world, and reduced to some sort of order the date of the invasion of Northern India by the Yuehti, as well as the main facts about the first, and apparently greatest of the Kushan kings, we may pause awhile to consider the era so well known in what passes for Indian chronology as the Vikramâditya Samvat, on which many theories have been built up,—so many, in fact, that some of the best informed of Indian Chronologists have been disposed to look upon the presumed era as little better than a mediæval invention. As, however, generally accepted the era is made to begin in the year B.C. 57, a date remarkable as falling on the above scheme within the effective reign of king Geathlef; and judging from the above dates, just at the time when he must have been busily engaged completing his conquest of Gandhâra. Geathlef was above everthing a Çaka, a Çaka of the Çakas, in fact, and he was engaged in invading India; as a fact we know at the period of no other invasion of India;—it is certainly not recorded, nor was there apparently any opening at the period for invasion otherwise. History, tradition, and apparently possibility, are all against any other military movement having marked the time. About 190 B.C. the empire of the Mauryas was destroyed by Pushpamitra, who founded the Cunga line, which lasted down to the time of the Kushan monarchs. It, however, accomplished no conquests, but from the beginning lost territory to its more powerful rivals on the west and south.

35. Now in Indian tradition Vikramâditya is given the pre-eminent title of Çakâri (Enemy of the Cakæ) or Çakântika (Destroyer of the Caka). He was, we are told, the hero, almost the demigod, whose victory over the Skythic invaders introduced the Samvat Era, and whose fame, whose magnificence, courage, and goodness are current talk amongst the children in the Panjâb to the present day. Vikramâditya is of course Sanscrit, yet could hardly have been given as a name in the first instance; it does, indeed, occur again amongst the personal names in the "Gupta" dynasty, but the Gupta dynasty is three parts out of four mere legend unsupported by a single fact; and the Gupta Vikramâditya, as represented in current legends, is for the most part a mere reflex of the older. The name bears every mark of being posthumous, or at least honorific, and given after the deeds it is intended to honour. It may be rendered "The out-steppinghero who out-races all his competitors," and so is a literal translation of the Getic Geathlef, the Good-Goer of the Chinese The conquest of the Panjab, and the greater part of Acoka's empire, might fairly be urged as a justification for the honorific title.

36. But, as we have seen, Geathlef, or Kadphises, was a Yuehti, and therefore a Çak, and primâ facie his conquest of the Panjâb could scarcely be accounted a deliverance. As, however, we learn from the Chinese accounts that it was from Parthia, and not from any native Indian monarchy that Kadphises

captured Kophênê, we must, to understand the position, review a few of the main facts of Parthian history. The very name of Parthian, in Greek called παρθυαίαι, as Justin reminds us, in their own language meant exsules, outgoers, i.e., Getic Forthwaras, under Hoch Germanic influence changed to Parthwaras, from whence directly the Greek form. Originally they had come from beyond Maeotis (wherever that may have been), and had overrun the land, and established there a military aristocracy, much as did the Etrusci in Italy, or the Spartans in the Peloponnesus. More like the former than the latter; while both reduced the native inhabitants to a state bordering on servitude, and deprived them of all the privileges of freemen. the Parthians did not further abuse their position, and freely admitted the unfree to all positions of trust, and even enrolled them in their army, which was in fact mainly composed of the subject races. As a territorial appellation Parthia never had any existence, and never was dissociated from Hyrkania. Even its capital (Greek Hekatompylos, seemingly in old Persian Cataraochana) appeared in its duplicate form as the Parthian Hundrakerta, the Greek Zadrakarta; which must not, as erroneously supposed, be rendered as implying a second city, the names being simply the Parthian or Persian denominations respectively.

36. Under its great king Mithridates I Parthia aimed at the conquest of the East, and Mithridates made war on Baktria, then under the rule of a king called by the Greeks Heliokles, son of Eukratidas, but whose real name was seemingly Azilises or Spalirises (Capal-isca, i.e., Gabal-isca). The result of the war was the defeat of Baktria and the annexation of two provinces, followed by the invasion of India; his arms being stated to have advanced as far as the Hydaspes (Jhelam). It then comprised, according to Rawlinson, Baktria, Areia, Drangiâna and Arakhosia, and apparently Kophênê, Gandhâra, and the entire of the Panjâb, probably as far as the Jumna. Heliokles would seem to have been forced to retire into Sindh and Ujain, where we shall ultimately meet his successors.

37. Judging from the facility with which Kadiphes I, and his successor of apparently the same name, overran these provinces, the rule of Parthia, never in sympathy with conquered nations, must have been especially distasteful in these regions; as distasteful, doubtless, as Demetrius II of Syria found it in his invasion of Mesopotamia in the previous century; and it is well to remember that it was only when he had touched the heart of Parthia itself, that Demetrius learned the real strength of her military organisation.

38. On the break-up of the great kingdom of Mâgadha under the feeble rule of the Çunga dynasty, the whole of the western portion of that state would seem to have passed into the hands of Demetrius, son of Euthydêmus. Attacked from

the north-east by the usurper known as Eukratidas, Demetrius had to leave his Paniab dominion unprotected, with the result of the further advance of the Parthian forces, which seem to have reached as far as Thanesar. The Chinese author of the Heo Han Shu speaks rather contemptuously of the kingdom of Mågadha under Buddhist rule:-The Svåbhåvika sect (of Buddhists) forbid killing in either offence or defence, and the Yuehti had an easy task in occupying the land. According to the author, on the S.W. T'iencho (Northern India) reaches the western sea, and on the east it extends to P'wank'i (seemingly an early mention of Bengal). Eukratidas succeeded in making himself master of what remained of Baktria, and passed it on to his son, cir. 140 B.C. The son, who, according to Justin (xli), had had his father, whom he conceived too old, done to death—an ordinary occurrence amongst these Getic sovereigns, -was no more successful, and lost, Strabo says, to Parthia, but more likely to the advancing Kushan power his northern provinces. This seems to have been the last record of the once promising Greko-Baktrian kingdom, of which we hear nothing after Heliokles.

The only two powers then left in Northern India to continue the struggle were Kushan under the strong rule of the Geáthlefs, and Kophênê and Gandhâra, with their dependencies still administered by Parthia under satraps almost regal, of which in their coins we find abundant evidence. Phraates, the Parthian king who succeeded Mithridates, had to take up arms against the Skythic tribes in the extreme north-east, and was killed in battle B.C. 128-127. He was succeeded by an uncle, Artabanus, who attempted to carry on the war against the Tokhars, but fell likewise in battle, cir. 124 B.C. The sovereign known as Mithridates II. now ascended the Parthian throne, and in the east restored for a time, at least, the fortunes of his house (Rawlinson, Sixth Oriental Monarchy, 123, seq.), and Parthian rule seems to have been consolidated over Arakhosia, and Gedrosia, while the inroads on Parthia itself from the ever restless peoples of the north-east seems for the time to have ceased. This respite doubtless, for the materials at our service are too indefinite to explain the motives of action, influenced Mithridates in looking once more to the west; where a tempting bait was held out to him by complications in Armenia, and an opening for the extension of Parthian influence in that country seemed more profitable than beating the wind in unprofitable struggles with semi-barbarous peoples in the East. These projects of Mithridates brought Parthia into contact with Rome for the first time; and for the future she was too much occupied to have much thought for her oriental dependencies, which were neglected; and the satraps, judging from the inscriptions on the coins, were allowed to administer their charges almost without interference, and assumed practically regal sway.

- This it was that gave the Yuehti monarch his oppor-According to the letter written by the Hiung Nu Shenyü, above quoted, the immediate effect of driving the Yuehti into the Baktrian valleys had been to unite the "bowman" nations, whom he reckons at twenty-six, in "one family." Maotun's Empire was one of the usual Turkish order, and with the death of its founder it commenced to decay. The principal of these Bowmen peoples, as we learn from the Shi Ki (Chap. CX.), were the Wusun, and the Hukrit, besides the Yuehti and Tahias; all these we know of besides from Greek sources: "The best known tribes," says Strabo (XI. viii. 2), "are those who deprived the Greeks of Baktriana,—the Asii or P(V)asiani, Tokhari, and Cakarauli, who came from the country on the other side of the Jaxartes." Here the Asii or Vasiani are, of course, the Wusun; the Tahia the Tokhars; and the Cakarauli the Hukrit,—the Caka(r)ægli who in subsequent centuries became prominent under their Chinese name of Hweiki(t),—the Wigurs of history. These folk all belonged to the one stock of fairhaired Cakae; so that it was easy when Geathlef had overcome the other divisions to unite all into the one Yuehti kingdom of Kesh. Now tribes of similar stock had long been planted in the Panjab, where, as in the case of the Kathaei described by Arrian, they proved themselves the most patriotic of the Indians: we can also begin to understand why there should have been practically no resistance offered to the crossing of the Hindu Kush by Geathlef, and why he was at once, and seemingly with the tacit good will of all, permitted to assume the government. Of plots or intrigues to get rid of their new masters there is not a single symptom; the new monarch at once becomes a zealous disciple of Buddhism—a second Açoka in fact; and Northern India enters on a new career of peace and prosperity, to which. it had been long a stranger.
- 41. The accession of the Kushans was, in fact, a deliverance. North-West India had for nearly a century been ground between the Parthians and Eukratidas; the "Good-Goer," be he Geathlef or Vikramâditya, had come as a deliverer and a saviour, and 57 B.C., apparently the year in which he took possession of the Panjâb and western Mâgadha, soon became the era of the Good-Goer from which a grateful country loved to reckon its rebirth.
- 42. Yet a tradition of war is preserved, but such a war as emphasizes the fact of the reigns of the two Kadphises having been an epoch of peace and recuperation. The hill tribes on the north-western frontier, then as now a perpetual source of trouble to settled government, had been making inroads, and the Kanishka, to give him his title, Kadphises (or Geathlef, for it is all one which we call him), had reason to believe that the then king at Magadha had been secretly urging them on, and accordingly made war on that state. The king could offer no

resistance, and appealed to their common Buddhism, an appeal which from prudential motives Kadphises accepted. The end was that under the influence of Açvaghosha, the apostle of Northern Buddhism who introduced the cult of Amida and his Paradise of the West, a peace was made, and the Mahâyâna school became, for a time at least, paramount in the Kushan kingdom. This school of Açvaghosha was indebted for many of its peculiar doctrines to the Mazdeism of the day, the knowledge of which came to these regions through the Parthian occupation; and it is noteworthy, that this cult of Amida, one day to become the prominent feature in Chinese and Japanese Buddhism, was first preached in Eastern Asia by the Parthian prince Anshi Kao, son of king Pacorus, who willingly resigned his succession to bear the Doctrine to those eastern lands.

43. A critical study of the coins of this period, in the new light thrown on contemporary events by the Chinese historians, will show them to be in entire accordance with the other recorded facts above. This must, however, be reserved for another chapter.

PART II.

THE ÇAKAN KINGDOM, AND THE PARTHIAN DOMINION.

From records, which if not contemporary are of very early date, we can gather that the second Geathlef, whose name we may modernize as Guthlaf, was succeeded by a monarch bearing the unmistakably, even in its Greek form, Getic name of Gondophares, i.e. Gundoberht. The name is as unmistakable Getic as that mentioned by Menander of Katulphus. Here we may quote at some length the apocryphal acts of S. Thomas, which with their evidently undesigned coincidences, though in no way historical, may be accepted as throwing light on the circumstances of the time. Gundobert, succeeding to a settled kingdom, and having apparently removed his capital from Parashawar to the more central Takshasila, identified by Cunningham with Shahdheri near Rawalpindi, was desirous, according to the legend, to build a worthy palace, and for that purpose to procure from the West the services of an architect. explained to an Arabian (Sabean) merchant, whom the story Now it so happened that after the death of our calls Habban. Lord the apostles met together to decide the field to be taken by each in the propagation of the Gospel, and to Thomas was allotted India and the East; although peace had been made between Rome and Parthia, affairs were still so unsettled between Parthia and her neighbours all round, and affairs in Parthia itself were so disturbed that Thomas hesitated. According to the legend, Thomas was by our Saviour sold into captivity to Habban; more likely it was that while Thomas was hesitating on account of the difficulty of the road, the offer of Habban seemed to him to afford a practicable opening. At all events he and Habban embarked for a place called Sandaruk. But where was Sandaruk? Much altogether needless difficulty has been raised about its identification. The great port of Western India at the time was Baragaza (Barooch) on the Bay of Cambay, and Baragaza was at the period under the government of the "Saka" dynasty of Sindh, whose capital was at Sâgala, which we must from the description in the Periplus of the Erythrian sea identify with modern Sukkur on the Indus. Sandaruk was plainly then but the Greek merchants' way of pronouncing Sindhu-râjya, which in its turn meant simply the kingdom of Sindh.

45. Here they were received honourably, and the two were invited to take part in the festivities attending the marriage of the Rajah's daughter. The two adjoining states of Sindhu and Kushan were at peace, so that this happened before the outbreak of the war wherein Sâlivâhan defeated the "Indo-Skyths" in the great battle of Kahror, which gave rise to the Sakan Era beginning with 79 A.D. The Rajah afterwards assisted Thomas on his way to the court of King Gondophares, so that we have good grounds for concluding that Gundobert was alive between the years 45 and 60 A.D. We thus obtain a sequence of three sovereigns extending from B.C. 79 to A.D. 55-60, of whom we know that the first lived to extreme old age,

a case not altogether unexampled.

46. The evidence of coins has, however, been interpreted as indicating another king with the somewhat questionable name of Vasu Deva. Wilson in Ariana Antiqua describes a gold coin on which was the first portion of a similar legend, Shaonano-shao, as above interpreted. The latter portion was, however, read by Wilson as BAHAONA, but by Cunningham as BAZO ΔHO, which he interpreted as VASUDEVA. Here the occurrence of a Sanscrit alongside a Getic name need not of itself excite any surprise, but in this case this does not seem to be the true explanation. Mr. E. Thomas (in the Journal R. A. S., vol. ix, 1, 1876) gives an inscription in the Indo-Pali alphabet found at Mathura, which he reads:—Mahârâja Kaneshka, Gushana, Vasu samvardhaka; and translates:—"The Mahârâja Kaneshka, Increaser of the Dominion of the Gushans." The date given is Samvat 18.

47. The first portion of the inscription has been above explained, so that the present may be better interpreted as $Mah\hat{a}r\hat{a}ja$, King of Kesh, Widener of the Dominion. As in the former case with Kaneshka (which turns out to be merely a title and to be a Getic form of Cynisca, King), we may read in the $BAZO \triangle HO$ of Cunningham, substituting for the doubtful H an N, the formula VASU (VAR) \triangle (A)NA, A where \triangle stands for

Sans. w, so that we have for the legend on the coin: -Kshatraonam Kshatra, Vasu-Vardhana, with the rendering "Shah of Shahs, Widener of Dominion," for both of which titles, the former contracted to mere Shahi, we have the authority of the inscriptions quoted by Mr. Thomas. The date given for this inscription is Samvat 18; and if we regard this as intended for SEL. 218, we must refer it to B.C. 94, which does not agree with our calculations founded on the nearly contemporary Chinese accounts. If, however, we take the Era of Vikramâditya, B.C. 57, we obtain for the date B.C. 39, which we shall see perfeetly harmonizes with our other dates, falling within the reign of Kadphises (Guthlaf) I, who might fairly claim the title of Vasu-Vardhana. As the inscription comes from Mathura, we can recognize the propriety of adding the Sanscrit title to the older one of Kaneshka Koshano.

These inscriptions Mr. Thomas gives (quoting from Cunning-

ham; Archæ.—Rep. III. 38).

INDO-SKYTHIAN INSCRIPTIONS.

In the Indo-Pali Alphabet.

Kanishka Mahârâja Kanishka	Samvat 9.
Kanishka	Samvat 28.
Huvishka	Samvat 35.
Huvishka Mahârâja DEVAPUTRA	$\dots Huvishka$.
	Hemanta, $S.30$.

Mahârâja RâJÂTIRÂJA DEVAPUTRA

... Huvishka, Grishma, S. 47.

Maharaja Huvishka .. Hemanta, S. 48. Vasudeva .. Mahârâja Râjâtirâja DEVA-

.. Vasu(deva),

PUTRA

Varsha, S. 44. .. Grishma, S. 33.

Mahârâja Vasudeva Mahârâja Râjâtirâja, Shahi .. Vasudeva.

Râjâ Vasudeva

Hemanta, S. 87. .. Varsha, S. 38.

"The parallel series are more scattered and crop up in less direct consecutive associations; these are endorsed in the Bactrian or Aryan adaptation of the ancient Phœnician alphabet."

INDO-SKYTHIAN INSCRIPTIONS.

In the Bactrian-Pali Alphabet.

Bahawalpur .. Mahârâja Râjâtirâja DEVAPUTRA Kanishka.

Samvat 11, on the 28th of the (Greek) month of Daesius.

Manikyala Tope .. Mahârâja Kaneshka, Guhana vasu samvardhaka.

"Increaser of the dominion of the Gushans" (Kushans). Samvat 18.

Wardak Vase .. Mahârâja Râjâtirâja Huveshka. Samvat 51, 15th Artemisius.

48. In these inscriptions, when use is made of the Macedonian months we are palpably justified in referring the date to the Seleucidan Era, B.C. 312; and on the other hand, when the Indian seasons are made use of, we may with equal confidence refer the data to the Wilmonth States.

refer the date to the Vikramâditya Samvat.

49. The two first of the above under the title Kanishka, Samvat 8 and 28, will thus correspond with the dates 48 and 32 B.C. and will belong to the reign of Guthlaf I, as also will the inscription from the Manikyala Tope, Samvat 18, i.e. 89 B.C. Within the same reign will then fall the legend Mahârâja Devaputra Huvishka, with its date of Hemanta, S. 30, i.e. 27 B.C. We then meet with the legends Mahârâja Vasudeva, S. 38, i.e. B.C. 24; Huvishka, S. 35, i.e. B.C. 22; Mâhârâja Râjâtiraja Devaputra Vasu(deva), S. 44, i.e. B.C. 13; Mahârâja Râjâtirâja Devaputra Huvishka, S. 47, i.e. B.C. GO; and Mahârâja Huvishka, S. 48, i.e. B.C. 9;—all within the reign of Guthlaf II.

50. Finally we have the legends Mahârâja Râjâtirajâ Shahi Vasudeva, S. 87, i.e. A.D. 29; and Raja Vasudeva, S. 98 i.e., A.D. 60, both of which may be referred to the reign of

Gundobert.

51. Turning to the dated inscriptions with Greek months, we find:—Mahârâjâ Râjâtirâja Devaputra Kanishka, dated Samvat 11, i.e. SEL. 311, which would correspond with the year O—this at Bahawalpur; and on the Wardak Vase, Mahârâja Râjâtirâja Huveshka, dated Samvat 51, SEL. 351, corresponding with A.D. 40:—the first of these apparently falling within the reign of Guthlaf II, the other within that of Gundobert, the inscriptions thus closely agreeing with the legends on the coins.

52. The Kushan dominion, though undoubtedly the most important of the states founded at this period in north-western India, was not the only one. Unlike most other Asiatic monarchies it had a long life, and amid various vicissitudes continued to exist till about the year 560 A.D., about which period it was finally extinguished by a combination of Moghur, the great Ilkhan of the Tughal Turks, with his brother-in-law Anushirwan, the powerful Sassanide Shah of Persia. The present brochure is, however, only concerned with the foundation of the state, and its political relations at the commencement of the present era. We must, therefore, return to our historical narrative.

- 53. About the beginning of the third century B.C. the contentions of the "Successors" in Western Asia had deprived the eastern portions of Alexander's empire of all guidance from head-quarters, and naturally left to themselves, a powerful centrifugal tendency was engendered. India was the first to assert its independence, but the others shortly followed, and about 256 B.C. we find Parthia and Baktria disowning their allegiance. Both these populations were largely Getic; Parthia, indeed, in a great measure belonging to the "Hoch" or Germanic type, while Baktria was essentially of the lower or "Platt" type, and so not distantly connected with the Gothic peoples, who afterwards had to be reckoned with in Europe. The revolting Governor, indeed, bore the Grecised name of Diodotus, but Diodotus alongside Hellenised Gothic forms as Theodorus, Theodosius, etc., points unmistakably to the Getic Tiu(d)isca; and the Chinese historians distinctly describe these people in Baktria as being of a blond type, with fair hair, abundance of beard, and blue eyes. There is not on the other hand a particle of evidence to connect them racially with their implacable foes the Hiung Nu Turks, nor are any of the surviving inscriptions capable of explanation from any Turki dialect, while the personal names all exhibit a decidedly Getic complexion. The scanty accounts we have of this Greco-Baktrian line point to its supersession about 215 B.C. by one Euthydêmus, who apparently had some claim to Greek, if not Macedonian nationality; and it is curious to find him when upbraided with having fallen off from his allegiance, pleading that it was not against his Syrian liege that he had rebelled, but against Diodotus, the real offender, he having really brought back the kingdom under Greek rule. He did more, for, as Strabo (XI. xi. 1) informs us, he and his son Demetrius conquered more nations than Alexander, and these conquests were achieved "partly by Menander, and partly by Demetrius, son of Euthydemus'; they got hold of, in fact not only Pattalene (Patala in Sindh) but of the kingdoms of Saraostis and Sigerdis (apparently Sâgara and Kach) which constitute the remainder of the coast. The important fact here is that Demetrius succeeded in carrying his conquests to Gujerat and the Gulf of Cambay.
- 54. Now the Periplus of the Erythrian Sea describing Minnagar entitles it the metropolis of the districts about the river Sinthus (Indus), and adds apparently that at the time, about the 2nd century, it had removed itself "from under" the rule of Parthia. The sentence is obscure, but would seem to imply that Sindh, as Kophênê, had been under Parthian rule, but that recently it had declared its independence. Minnagara, according to Cunningham, was on the Indus in about latitude 24.50, but was seemingly only the commercial capital. If then Demetrius were the sovereign who carried his conquests into this region, his victory can only have been at the expense of Parthia,

and this seems to throw light on what has hitherto been one of the most obscure points of history. Eukratidas, as we have seen, fol. 12, had been successful against Demetrius in the Panjâb, and had occupied the land in force; we have no further record of what occurred to Demetrius, unless, indeed, the Plato, a coin of whose is represented by Mr. Thomas (R.A.S. IX, n. s., 5) should have been his son. He must in all probability have been driven south, and not impossibly was the founder of the Caka line of kings. If so, the still mysterious "Greek" king Menander would have been one of his successors. The coin referred to is in this connection more especially interesting; it is distinctly Greek in conception and execution, and of a far higher type of art than those of the other monarchs. According to Mr. Thomas. quoting Herodotus, the ornamentation of the helmet on the coin is Chabylian, and it is difficult to account for this unless it were that Euthydêmus, though born at Magnesia, should have been of Chabylian ancestry; a by no means impossible, or even unlikely, contingency. Demetrius had been betrothed to the daughter of Antiochus, and Plato may have been her son, and so brought up in accordance with Grecian culture; and the die was doubtless obtained direct from Greece. On his accession Eukratidas probably made a sudden attack before Plato had had time to collect his forces. It is consonant with such a view that Eukratidas would have utilized the newly-made die, probably before any coins had been regularly issued. As we have seen, Eukratidas was himself dispossessed of these regions very shortly after by the Parthian attack, which would have forced the Greek kings further south. Menander is always represented in tradition as a Yonaka.

55. We can thus begin to comprehend the part taken by these Caka kings: When after crossing the Hindu Kush King Guthlaf, with his Yuehti, fell on the Parthian rulers of Kophênê and Gandhâra, and so became the Saviour of Northern India, Menander, advancing from the south, attacked the Parthian satraps in Sindh. Like Guthlaf, he too became the Just, Aikaios, Dharmika, the Sôtêr. If Demetrius had advanced to the Jumna and had annexed the entire of the Panjah, and a good part of Northern India, to the lot of Menander fell Sindhu, Mâlava, Ujain, and Mathura, so that Strabo was perfectly justified in his statement that both had conquered more of India than Alexander himself. The dynasty did not long, in externals at least, preserve its Greek character, and we find the most celebrated of the line adopting an Indian name, Çâli-Vâhana, followed by a king calling himself Jîmûta-Vâhana. Returning, however, to coins there seems some possibility that we must refer a coin illustrated by Mr. Thomas (l. c.) and bearing the Greek legend Hodov with king; 'H here would be the natural representative of the Sanscrit C, and the Sanscrit L would, apparently to make some sense of the compound, have been substituted for Greek At first the state seems from the story of S. Thomas to have worked in concert with the Kushans; but interests soon began to differ, and we find King ÇÂLI-VÂHANA as bitterly hostile to the Kushan Vikramâditya as was the latter to the Parthian intruders; and like them he too instituted an Era, to which he gave the name of the Caka to celebrate a victory over that line of kings, but apparently beginning with his own The Chinese records, which have proved so useful in restoring the history of the Kushans, here fail us, and we have only the coins, or imperfect tradition to guide us. One notice from the Periplus of the Erythrian Sea is, however, of importance. The author mentions that old coins bearing Greek inscriptions of Apollodorus and Menander were still to be met with. There is some reason to believe that Apollodorus was but an alternative name of the sovereign elsewhere called Heliokles, and the original name of both was some form of Gabaleizes or Gabaliska. Menander, according to all tradition, it may be remembered, had his capital at Sâgala, and Sagal, the capital of the Râja Milinda, is best identified with the Sigal of Isidor of Kharax, which the latter states was έντα βασίλεια Σάκων, i.e. in Sindh. It must then be identified with the modern Sukkur on the Indus, which Isidore describes as not far from Alexandropolis, rather than with Sânggala near the Ravi.

Regarding the earlier wanderings of this branch of the so-called siks, we seem to obtain some information in a much misquoted passage in the T'sien-Han Shu (Chap. xevi. ii). In JRAS, 1907, Dr. Francke exposes some of the blunders of the early "Sinologues"; referring to such utterly untrustworthy writers as De Guignes, and Rémusat, not to speak of the much better informed Klaproth. He, however, falls into a similar, though smaller, error of translating Hientu (India, or perhaps Sindhu) by Kipien (Kophênê). De Guignes, as Dr. Francke points out, had here no excuse except his own innate untrustworthiness for the blunder, the correct pronunciation being pointed out in the gloss attached to the text. The people here referred to are called by the Chinese author 15, which the gloss instructs us was pronounced Sak. The connections of the word would rather indicate that there was a missing liquid. l or r. From other indications I would restore the word as Sulâk, or Surâk, the name by which the country is called in the Bundahish. As in former cases it will be better to translate the notice in full.

57. "The king (kwen-rh, i.e. koningc) of Wusun had his head-quarters at Ch'ikkuk (apparently but another form of transliteration for Surâk). It was distant from C'hangan, the Chinese Capital, 8,900 li. There were 20,000 households, 630,000 dwellers. They could turn out 188,800 troops, under

two commanders-in chief of the right and left wings respectively, three commanders, each with an aide-de-camp, and two inspectorsgeneral. Besides there were—of Viziers one; of Supervisors of the Household two, and one prince of the blood in charge of the Royal guard. From the capital eastwards to Tangut was 1721 li, and west to Kangku (Yarkand) inside the Fân country, 1 was 5,000 li.

58. The country though generally level was rugged; much rain fell, it was cold, and the hills were covered with pines and elms. The inhabitants did not sow seed, nor plant trees, but engaged in pastoral pursuits, changing their quarters according to the condition of the pastures. They were very similar in their habits to the Hiung Nu, and had many horses, rich men owning as many as five thousand. The people are hard, coarse, cruel, covetous, and devoid of good faith; they are addicted to plunder and robbery, and neighbouring countries have had to interfere to punish them; even so they are restless of control, and do not willingly submit to authority. On the east they march with the Hiung Nu, on the N. W. with K'angku, on the west with Ta Yun (Yarkand), on the south with the Dependencies, with whom as well as with the Sak country they are on friendly terms.

59. When the Yuehti moved west, they attacked and defeated the Sak kingdom; whereupon the king moved south and entered Hientu (North India), while the Great Yueht occupied their lands. Subsequently the Kwenmo of the Wusun attacked and defeated the Great Yuehti, whereupon these retired to the west and tendered their submission to the Tahia (Tokhars): the Wusun king occupying their lands, and exercising a controlling influence. When Chang K'ien came to these regions he learnt that the Wusuns originally lived alongside the Great Yuehti in the neighbourhood of Tunhwang, but now that the former have grown rich and powerful, they have occupied all these eastern territories.

From the above description, we can begin to understand another of these ethnic movements referred to by the Greek historians. As suggested on folio 11, the real destroyer of the Greco-Baktrian kingdom was Euktratidas, but the name was according to contemporary practice only the Greek rendering of his personal name, which there is no reason to doubt was really Godred. Surak was the country about the ancient Surac, the Araxes of Herodotus, by the later Greeks corrupted to Jaxartes; and the name still survives in the modern local name of the Syr. The wider name of these districts was by the Greeks rendered as Sogdiana, transformed from the Iranian Çughdha; but Cughdha was simply the land of the Cakai, which moderns, ignorant of the fact that ancient Greek had only the guttural

Fan here can scarcely mean Tibet; more likely it is the phonetic representative of Fer in Ferghana.

sibilant represented by Sanscrit **Tr**, falsely render by Sakae. As Winckler was the first to point out, Getae, Cakae, Skythae, Sakae, and the Assyrian Skuzai, are all merely renderings of

the one word—the Geat of the Goths and Anglo-Saxons.

The movement, then, that led Eukratidas to aftack the Greek kingdom of Euthydêmus was none of his own seeking. mixed up in it were Yuehti, Wusuns, Tokhars, and the people of Surak, and all these folk belonged to the great Getic branch of the Blond Family, and all were indifferently known as Çaks. The whole of these peoples were, as we have seen from the representations of Euthydemus to Antiochus the Great, in a state of effervescence. Behind them were the Turkish tribes of the Hiung Nu, whose great leader Maotun had only lately deceased. Engaged in mortal conflict with these was the able Chinese Emperor, Wu of the Hans, who was straining the resources of his powerful empire in the struggle for mastery; and who had already opened up close intercourse with Parthia, then in her nascent stage of power. In front again were these same Parthians, under the most energetic of their rulers, the two Mithradates, so that the whole of contemporary Asia really formed a vast

military camp.

Eukratidas and his Saks had no sooner, as they 62. imagined, settled down in peace in Northern India, than they were attacked by Mithridates, who, taking advantage of the general confusion following the break-up of the empire of the Mauryas, and the irruption of the Saks, advanced into Northern India, and succeeded in annexing not only the greater part of the Maurya empire, but carried his arms into Sindh. India was at once too great, and too distant, to be governed from Parthia direct, and in true Oriental fashion the Parthian monarch. had recourse to Satraps. As long as Mithridates II. kept his attention fixed on his eastern possessions affairs doubtless went along fairly well. As soon, however, as his ambition turned towards the west, and he entered into competition with Rome for the suzerainty of Armenia, little by little Parthia's interest in her distant Oriental possessions commenced to dwindle; and the usual result, as had happened in like case with Syria, followed. The satraps, left without control, assumed regal authority, issued their own coinage, and governed practically as if the land belonged to themselves individually. Such are the indications presented to our notice in the money of these satraps, Moas or Mogas, Vonones, Azas, Spalarisas, Abdegases, etc.

63. Parthian government at no time took account of the desires or sympathies of subject nations, and Parthian rule in the Orient was no exception to the general rule; but the country had become too disorganized to be able of itself to shake off the hated yoke; when, therefore, King Guthlaf with his fair-haired Getic warriors essayed to cross the Paropanisus they were

everywhere received as saviours, and Guthlaf and his two able successors were able to found the powerful Empire of the Kushans, known to history as the Indo-Skythic Empire, with the approval of the subject races. In memory of the annexation of the Panjâb, rulers and people established B.C. 57 the Vikramâditya Era, which in grateful remembrance of their delivery from Parthian oppression still survives amongst the people of the Panjâb.

Buddhism, which the example of King Açoka had endeared to the people of Northern India, was the prevalent religion of the land, and Guthlaf and his two immediate successors frankly accepted the fact, and became munificent supporters of the Order, which throughout their dominions they richly endowed. The Buddhism of Kadphises (Guthlaf) was, however, a very different thing from that formerly preached by Gautama, a fact hardly as yet realized in its fullness by the students of the history of the age. Though Gautama (Cakyamuni) was himself of northern type, his surroundings had been so distinctly Indian that his teachings came to verge on an absolute nihilism. him there was no soul to be saved, and existence itself was the greatest of evils. The highest aim of humanity was actual and absolute extinction, and towards this end must be repressed, even in this life, the sense of separate existence, the delusion of self, and the lust of life.

At the very antipodes of this nihilistic creed was the new doctrine preached by the apostles of the Mahâyâna, Nagârjuna, Arvadeva, and, last but not least, Acvaghosha; and there is no reason to doubt that at the bottom of the change was the intellectual movement brought about by the presence of the northern invaders. Gautama, himself descended from Getic ancestors, and ever, as the history of his own struggles shows, instilled with a self-dependence entirely foreign to his Indian associations, was in the end after his breach with the ascetic school, insensibly driven to adopt the "Middle Course" which brought down on him the reproaches of his former fellow disciples. His future life was a distinct compromise; theoretically a nihilist, his whole existence was a glorification of the action. Karma, the central doctrine of his principle of philosophy, influenced scarcely at all his religious practice, which was that of a strenuous activity; wherein the nature of the individual, and not the acquired merit of countless previous existences, as taught in his philosophy, was all through the prevailing motive.

66. It is quite in the nature of things that Gautama himself never perceived the contradiction, but by degrees the fact forced itself on the notice of the disciples. Even with the Buddhism of Açoka, the rebellion against the soul-deadening doctrine of Karma, and the necessity for each individual who desires the rest of Nirvâna to work out his own salvation, is apparent, under

the new school the central doctrine has become that of Redemption:—

Sumeru is the most exalted of mountains, The Ocean is chief amongst the streams; Amongst devas and men, None is like to Buddha.

Able for the sake of all living To undergo all suffering, So that he might obtain redemption, And finally none should perish.

According to the legend as translated into Chinese, Acvaghosha belonged to the Brahman caste, and had become the terror of the Buddhists, none of whom ventured to meet him in argu-Beyond this there is no reason to believe that he was an Indian at all. His name, it is true, is Sanscrit, but this, we have seen, was the practice of the day. At all events the Chinese in accordance with the custom of the day render it into Chinese as Ma-Ming (Horse-Song), and this would be the natural translation of the Getic Md'rkalla, which would also answer for Acvaghosha. He was, we know, a resident in the kingdom of Magadha at the time when it was under Parthian rule, and hence was in a position to study the tenets of Mazdeism. The age was marked by attempts to reconcile the great religions, and Judaism, Buddhism, and Mazdeism more especially lent themselves to such comparative study. Almost in the words of the Buddha-charita we find John the Baptist thus pointing out Our Lord :- "Behold the Lamb of God, that taketh on himself the sins of the World!" In all three religions the idea of Redemption was paramount, and in availing himself of his opportunities for studying the tenets of Zoroaster, he was but following in the footsteps of the most pious teachers of the day.

67. It need excite no surprise, then, to find that the new Buddhism of Açvaghosha is in the main founded on Mazdean tradition. The Buddha Amitâbha (Measureless Light) is but a variant of the Story of Yima Khshaêta (Yima, the Resplendent, the first of mortals to pass the portals of death) and the Paradise of the West, which rather than the annihilation of Nirvâna, is to be the reward of him that overcometh, is to be found in the blessed Airyano Vaêja, where exists the "Tree of Life, which is in the Paradise of God."

68. Such, as gathered from contemporary Chinese sources, is the true history of the foundation of the Great Kushan Empire, which must be reckoned amongst the most important of the age, whether we regard it from a moral or physical standpoint. From the former its influence is still powerful in Eastern Asia, where the teachings of Açvaghosha are paramount in the recent revival of a purer Buddhism. Its historic influence, in that the Kushans of ancient Gandhâra were the forerunners of the

Gothic peoples who replaced by a higher civilization the cult of the Roman Empire, has been not less marked. Wilson in his Ariana Antiqua hesitatingly ventured to class the Sâks of Sindh with the English-speaking peoples of to-day. What seemed a mere guess, unsupported by any substantial foundation of truth, has turned out to be one of the most important generalizations of ethnography.

The Greek culture imported into these regions by the eastern conquests of Alexander had a most profound effect, on the Getic peoples more especially. For the first time these populations found themselves in contact with a civilization which they were not slow to recognize as superior to their own; yet the difference was only external, and, as they soon discovered, by no means mental. Mentally indeed they were at no loss when pitted against their rivals. Both belonged to the great Blond race, which for good or evil has in historical times dominated the world: although it is true that they belonged to different families, the Hellenes being closely allied with the golden-haired branch to which the term Aryan is alone correctly applied, while the Getae and their allies fall into the flaxen-haired branch, mythologically classed as descendants of Tura, of which the "Turanian" Frangrasyan was the type. Much of the confusion which has arisen with regard to the early, often called "prehistoric," history of these lands has arisen from the modern error of confounding these true Turanians with what are more correctly described as the Arimaspian stock,—the swarthy dwellers in the north, to which belonged Oghuz, and the peoples by ethnographers erroneously classed as Mongols and Turks,--both political and linguistic, rather than ethnic denominations.

Intellectually the two races stood on an equality; if the northern were the more given to practical science, the southern were at once more addicted to metaphysical discussion, and more artistic. As in the very similar case of their near kindred, who afterwards made their home in England, the Çaks and Yuehti who overran the northern provinces of India, of their own accord quickly conformed to the religion and culture of the higher standard; and before a generation had passed found themselves able to assimilate the entire stock of Greek civilization which was still current in the land. Intellectually they had little to learn, and from the beginning took their place alongside their teachers; even if in the arts they were content to sit at their feet. This is the true explanation of the progress in the East of Greek art and Greek culture, which in the course of the next few generations spread through the whole of Northern India, and even penetrated through Baktria, and what is now Eastern Turkestan

to far-distant China.

54. Oaths and Ordeals of the Geharas (Kanjars) of the Delhi District.

By W. KIRKPATRICK.

In a paper on the Folk-song and Folk-lore of these people, Maharani Daya, the Great Queen Mother, is mentioned as their supreme deity, her male counterpart being Khetrpal. Khetrpal, whose special sanctuary is said to be near Calcutta, is invoked when an oath is made to someone outside the tribe, when in fact it is premeditated that the asservation shall not be binding. Within the tribe Khetrpal is sometimes confused with Mana, the man god, the deified ancestor, and in an obscure sense Mana is an incarnation of Khetrpal. The legend as to how Mana lost his top-knot, or choti, and thus forever deprived his descendants of their high estate in Hinduism, will account for Khetrpal's name being put to the inglorious use of franking counterfeit oaths.

"Maharani!" is, on the other hand, the most binding oath known to the Geharas, and I believe to all Kanjars. Curiously it is also used colloquially as the strongest possible oath in the sense of a "swear word." In a quarrel, the worst abuse or the greatest curse one Gehara will hurl at another is "Maharani!" used in a sneering tone indicative of great disgust. Maharani Daya! is the full title of the goddess, "Oh! Mother Great Queen," and besides Maharani the expression Daya by itself is used to indicate extreme annoyance. Maharani and Daya are both used in very much the same way as the name of the Deity is resorted to in English

blasphemy.

The Kanjar will also swear by his gaidálá, or spear. The gaidálá, or spud, Mr. Crooke 8 describes as the "national implement of the Sansiyas." It is used by Kanjars and allied tribes for digging out vermin—spearing netted pig and hyaena and other large game—spearing turtles, and as an aid to the shorter spear called a Khánti. I have seen Kanjars use the khanti with wonderful accuracy and effect on jackals, and once on a running hog-deer. The gaidálá is also the principal implement in a curious form of inter-tribal trial by ordeal, to which men or women of the tribe suspected of infidelity are subjected. A small mound of earth is raised, from which a

¹ Folk-song and Folk-lore of the Gehara Kanjars, see J.A.S.B., vol. vii, no. 7, p. 437.

2 Ibid.

⁸ Crooke's Tribes and Castes, vol. iv, p. 263

distance of seven paces is measured out by the accuser, or in the case of the man being under trial his supposed victim marks out the seven paces from the mound. At this distance the accused stands while his hands are bandaged with kachá sōōth (hand-spun raw cotton yarn). The gaidálá is then made red hot and placed on his hands; if he can reach the mound without his hands being burnt he establishes his innocence! It is pleasant to know that when a lady is suspected, she is given a sporting chance by having her hands protected by a layer of seven leaves of the pipal tree. This trial by ordeal is accepted as an absolutely conclusive and certain test. Mr. Crooke' gives an account of practically the same ordeal in vogue with the Sansiyas, and Major Gunthorpo' mentions a

similar trial practised by the Kolhattis of the Deccan.

In "Castes and Tribes," in his article on Kanjars, Mr. Crooke says: "Their chief oaths are to stand in a river up to the neck; the man who stays longest in water is believed." I can amplify this version by personal observation. This is a form of Trial by ordeal used in all the Geharas' domestic and communal disputes and affairs, excluding only moral questions for which the red-hot gaidálá ordeal already explained is specially reserved. In all money disputes, differences of opinion on questions of hikar etiquette such as the dividing up of game netted and killed, and in the sharing of the spoil and loot of theft and dacoity, this water test is supreme. The Tribal Panchavet, or council presided over by the Chowdri or head man, select the piece of water in which the trial is to take place; though not essential, running water is usually chosen. All work is abandoned for the day by the principals and their supporters and families, who repair en bloc to the particular locality which has been selected by the Panchayet. Here the Panch sit and a delightfully free and easy discussion ensues, lasting probably all day, with intervals for refreshment of sweets (batüshás), jackal flesh, if available, and country spirit (daroo), all this being paid for by the contestants. some unexplained reason a Nai (Barber) and Brahman are retained in attendance—they are not, however, called upon to interfere or take part in any stage of the ceremony. In one case which I observed, the dispute was that a Gehara named Kallu had taken a certain travelling sahib (Globe-trotter) out to shoot panther, and in Kallu's entourage of coolies and beaters, etc. (all of whom were Geharas), was one Sowdagir. While they were out, Kallu states that Sowdagir spoke something to the sahib in English, which he (Kallu) did not under-Kallu held that etiquette required that anything

8 Tribes and Castes, vol. iii, p. 148.

Crooke's Tribes and Castes, vol. iv, p. 281.

² Notes on Criminal Tribes, Major Gunthorpe, p. 49.

Sowdagir had to say to the sahib should have been addressed through Kallu, and not direct. Kallu's grievance was that the next time this particular sahib went out shooting he took Sowdagir with him as head shikari. Kallu wanted reparation for what he described as Sowdagir's uncommunal conduct. The Panch decided that the matter was one for appeal to Trial by ordeal and that each side was to deposit Rs. 5, which would be divided among the Panch, to be utilized in providing wine and refreshments. If Sowdagir lost he would have to compensate Kallu to the extent of Rs. 20, while if Kallu lost he would only forfeit the Rs. 5, stake money. I have given this particular case in full to show the utilitarian purposes to which Trial by ordeal is now applied.

The actual trial is as follows: The two contestants, each with a long gaidálú or bamboo shaft with rough iron spearhead in his hand, walks into the water up to just within his depth, and, for reasons which will appear obvious later on, they are made to stand not less than seven hands apart. a given signal, both parties duck their heads under water, while another man, honest and true, appointed by the Panch. starts running at a fair pace for a spot seventy paces distant. The test is to see who can keep under water longest; if the accused remains submerged while the 140 paces there and back are accomplished, and the accuser has not been able to hold his breath as long, the accused is acquitted. If there is a draw. which, seeing that those people are most of them expert divers and swimmers, is often the case, the two have again to duck, and the one who can keep below water longest is adjudged the winner. The two spear-heads which remain sticking up are taken as an indication that both parties are playing fair, and are not swimming about or punching or kicking each other under water.

After the test is over there is a liberal indulgence in sweetmeats (laddu) and wine, and if there has been good hunting, jackal and porcupine are partaken of. The Nai and Brahman are given batüshás.

Ibbetson in his "Punjab Ethnography, Census 1887," in classifying the gypsy tribes, says: "The gypsy and apparently all the vagrant tribes are governed by tribal councils and often appeal to ordeal"; and adds that this trial of holding the breath under water is "a common form of ordeal."

In the event of a theft having taken place within the tribal encampment or settlement, and if the culprit is not forthcoming, all the suspects, which may mean the whole of the men of the tribe, are given the opportunity of putting back what they have taken in the following manner. A large fire is kindled in the middle of the nearest jungle or behind a bit of scrub or behind a mound or in a nullah, and when the fire is reduced to ashes each of the suspects is allowed to

missing.

When making a solemn oath or undertaking or propitiating or worshipping Maharani, by way of thanksgiving, the following ceremony is gone through The men of the tribe, the women take no part, all repair to the jungle or plain, an open space is marked out and cleaned and pasted (lipna) with cow-dung, a village pig is sacrificed and cooked. The meat from the head of the pig and the entire ears are then put into a brand-new ghará which has its neck roughly broken off. To this is added wheat-meal cakes (chapati) and wine (daroo), (country spirit), and when recooked rice is added. A small oil lamp (chirág) is then lighted and one or two songs sung and nowadays, under Hindu influence, a Brahman of sorts offers the whole of the contents of the ghará to Maharani, the Geharas themselves the while accompanying the sacrificial offering with tribal songs. Everything which has been offered to Maharani is finally divided up and eaten on the spot by all present. The breaking of the neck of the ghará before use is interesting. I have often seen ghards containing a cotton lamp wick, food, etc., with the necks broken off in the same manner and left lying near the fresh graves of low-caste Hindus and others.

56. The Belkhara Inscription and the Machlishahr Grant of Haris-Candra.

By RAKHAL DAS BANERJI, M.A., Indian Museum, Calcutta.

Fifteen miles to the south of the railway station of Ahraura Road on the East Indian Railway, and about two miles from the small town of Ahraura, in the Mirzapur District of the United Provinces, a small pillar of stone was lying on the ground even so late as 1906. There are two small inscriptions on the shaft of the pillar and a small image of Ganesa in relief at the bottom of the shaft. These were brought to public notice by the late Sir Alexander Cunningham, then Director-General of Archaeology in India. Very little notice was taken of them until lately, i.e. till the discovery of the Machlishahr grant of Haris-candra-deva of Kanauj. When I was examining the collection of copper-plates in the Lucknow Provincial Museum, in 1908, with a view to catalogue them, I was struck by the date of this inscription and the connecting link supplied by the more important one of the inscriptions on the Belkhara pillar. On my return journey from Lucknow, I paid a visit to Belkhärä and found the pillar lying on the ground. During the working season of 1910-1911, I had the opportunity of examining the inscriptions on the Belkhārā pillar once more. It may be mentioned in this connection that one of the inscriptions on this pillar has very nearly disappeared, and at the same time it is of very little importance as it does not seem to contain any date or name worth mentioning. The characters belong to the thirteenth or fourteenth century type of the Eastern variety of the Northern alphabet. On my second visit to the place I found that the pillar has been set up on a short masonry pedestal, evidently at the suggestion of Dr. J. Ph. Vogel of the Archaeological Survey, who was the first to mention the connection between the pillar inscription and the Machlishahr grant.2 I learnt from the local people that the pillar has been set up on the pedestal by the order of the District Magistrate. I had a mind to edit the inscription on the pillar at that time, but I was dissuaded from doing so on learning that Pandit Hirananda Sastri, of the Archaeological Survey, Northern Circle, was editing the Machlishahr grant as I thought that incidentally he might edit the Belkhārā inscription also. Pandit Hirananda's article on

¹ Arch. Survey Rep., vol. xii, p. 128, pl. xxxviii.
2 "Annual Report of the Superintendent, Archaeological Survey,
Northern Circle," 1906-7, p. 39 note.

the Machlishahr grant of Haris-candra-deva has now been published, and I find that the Belkhārā inscription has not been mentioned.\(^1\) I have accordingly felt free to discuss some points of the Machlishahr grant and to edit the Belkhārā pillar inscription. I believe that the joint discussion of these two inscriptions will tend to throw further light on the history of Northern India during the troubled period, immediately before and after the final conquest by the Muhammadans.

Before the discovery of the Machlishahr grant, it was generally believed that the Gahadavala dynasty of Kanyakubja came to an end with the death of Java-candra-deva in H. 590 or 1194 A.D. The long series of copper-plate grants ended abruptly during the time of Jaya-candra, and the sequel was supplied by the contemporary Muhammadan historians and their long line of followers. As no inscriptions of Jayacandra's successors had been discovered at that time and no contradictory statements were to be found in the accounts of the conquest of the Gāhadavāla empire given by the contemporary Muhammadan historians, it must be admitted that the previous opinion about the end of the Gahadavalas was fairly correct. The account of the war of Muhammad Shihābuddīn of Ghūr with Rāi Jaichānd or Mahārāja Jaya-candra of Kānyakubja or Kanauj is to be found in the majority of Muhammadan histories dealing with the period, but only three of them can claim to have the place of honour as contemporary accounts. They are-

> (1) The Tāj-ul-Ma'aṣir, (2) The Kāmil-ut-tawārikh, and (3) the Tabaqāt-i-Naṣirī.

I need not recapitulate Elliot's notes about the dates of these three books and their authors.2 It is quite sufficient to note that all of them are contemporaries of the events they describe, and all other accounts of the Muhammadan conquest are either copies or abridgments of their accounts. principal authority on the conquest of the kingdom of Kanauj is the "Tāj-ul-Ma'agir." The "Kāmil-ut-tawārikh" follows it very closely and adds only one unimportant detail about the death of Jaya-candra. The account given by Maulana Minhajus-Sirāj, of the account of the war with Jaichand, is very meagre compared with his account of the conquest of Bengal and This is to be regretted as we know that the author Bihar. was more conversant with the affairs of the more Northern provinces than with those of Bengal and Bihar, though he visited Bengal and stayed there for some time.

Epi. Ind., vol. x, p. 93.
 The History of India," by Sir H. Elliot, London, 1867, vol. ii, pp. 204-252.

In the main, the account given in the "Tāj-ul-Ma'aşir" has been followed by the later Muhammadan historians. Qutb-uddin Aibak proceeded against Rāi Jai-chānd, the very next year after the capture of Delhi, and on the way he was joined by Sultan Shihāb-ud-dīn. The invading army numbered about fifty thousand horse. Qutb-ud-din was placed by the Sultan in charge of the vanguard. The invading army met the troops of Kanauj in a place named Chandawar near Etawa. very place is mentioned later on in the "Tārikh-i-Shershāhī" as a sandy plain. In the fight Rāi Jai-chānd was slain while directing the movements of his troops from the back of an elephant, and the fight practically ended with the death of the king. The rest of the facts are not important. The defeat of the Kanauj army was followed by the sack of the important fort of Asni, in which the royal treasure was kept. The victorious army marched on to the sacred city of Benares, which was captured and sacked.2 The destruction of the famous Vihāras and monasteries of Sārnāth was probably completed at this time. The work was begun most probably by Sultan Mahmud of Ghaznī. The fort of Asni was an ancient stronghold of the kingdom of Kanauj. It was a place of some importance even in the time of the Pratihāra-Gurjara empire. One of the pillars in the ancient fort still bears a long inscription of Mahipāla. No mention is made in the account of the Muhammadan historians of the fate of the Royal family or the sons of the deceased king. After the fall of Prthvīrāja, the king of Delhi, repeated resistance was offered by his relatives at Delhi and Ajmer to the Muhammadan invaders, and these facts have been mentioned in the Tāj-ul-ma'asir itself. But in the case of the kingdom of Kanaui, all reference to the previous rulers cease with the death of King Jaya-candra, and the last mention is to be found in the Kāmil-ut-tawārikh, which states that after the battle of Chandawar, Jai-chand's body could not be found, and was discovered under a heap of dead bodies. The king was recognized by his false teeth, which were set in a frame of gold.⁵ No further mention is to be found in Persian historical literature, and it was quietly assumed by modern historians that the Gahadavala dynasty came to an end with Java-candra in A.D. 1194. But two prominent facts remained unsettled. Jaya-candra had a son named Hariścandra, who was born in the Vikrama year 1232, on the 8th day of Bhadra, which corresponds to the 10th August, A.D.

¹ Ibid., vol. iv.

² *Ibid.*, vol. ii, p. 251. ³ See Ind. Ant., vol. xvi. The name was read by Dr. Fleet as Mahisapāla, p. 174. The inscription is at present in the Townhall at

Filiot's "History of India," vol. ii, p. 219. Ibid., p. 251.

1175. On the occasion of the jatakarman or the ceremony of cutting the navel string of the newborn babe, the king Javacandra granted the village of Vadesara in the Kangali pattalā to the priest of the family, Praharaja-sarman. Exactly twenty-one days after the birth of the prince he was given a name, and on that occasion (nāma-karana) the king granted the villages of Saraudā and Āmāyi, in the Mānara pattalā, to a Brāhmana named Mahāpandita Hrsīkeśa-śarman. These two villages were given away on Sunday the 13th lunar day of the bright half of the month of Bhadrapada of the Vikrama year 1232, which corresponds to, according to Dr. Kielhorn's calculations, the 31st of August, A.D. 1175. Nothing is known of this prince Haris-candra after his birth. Another fact which calls for our attention, is that the Rathor princes of Jodhpur claim to have been descended from king Jaya-candra of Kanauj, but the name of the son of king Jaya-candra, from whom the princes of Mārwār claim to be descended, is variously named by Tod and Dr. Hall as Sitārām, Setrām and Swetarāi.8 It is well known that nobody has as yet tried to identify this Prince Haris-candra with Swetarāi or Sitārām, not even the archaeologists of the Jodhpur Durbar, who should naturally feel greater interest in the subject. I learned from Mahāmahopādhyāya Hara Prasada Sastrī that the very name of Haris-candra was a novelty in the Jodhpur State at the time of his visit, in search of Bardic chronicles in 1908. The discovery of the Machlishahr grant was announced by Dr. J. Ph. Vogel in his annual report for 1906-7, who at the same time drew attention to the Belkhārā inscription, and the probable identity of the king Hariscandra with the ruler whose name has not been fully mentioned in the latter record.4 Cunningham's discovery of the Belkhara inscription did not attract much attention at that time. In fact, the great pioneer's faulty version of the record has made it very difficult for any one to use it, and whoever has used it, has fallen into one or other serious mistake. Thus we find Mr. V. A. Smith stating in one of his articles that the Belkhārā inscription represents an un-named king of the Gahadavala family as granting a village, more than two hundred miles distant from Kanauj. In his notes on Pandit Hīrānanda Sāstri's article on the Machlishahr grant, the Editor of the "Epigraphia Indica" has followed Mr. V. A. Smith's statements.6 The Belkhara inscription contains nothing about grants of land, as will be seen later on. Another point which calls

Epi. Ind., vol. iv, p. 127.
 Ind. Ant., vol. xviii, p. 130.

⁸ Arch. Surv. Rep. (old series), vol. xi, p. 129.

Annual Report of the Superintendent, Archaeological Survey,
 Northern Circle, 1906-7, p. 39 note.
 J.R.A.S., 1908, p. 791.

⁶ Epi. Ind., vol. x, p. 95.

for immediate attention is the statement that "The town of Kanauj was completely devastated by Shihāb-ud-din in A.D. 1193." Here also the Editor of the "Epigraphia Indica" is to be found closely following the statements of Mr. Smith.2 But there is nothing in the writings of the contemporary Muhammadan historians to warrant such a statement. Elliot's summary of the contents of the Taj-ul-Ma'aşir is one of the very best and there is no mention of the capture or sack of Kanauj in the account of the year 589 or 590 A.H. Neither the Kāmil-ut-tawārīkh nor the Tabaqāt-i-Nāsirī contain anything about the capture of Kanauj. Consequently it must be admitted that if any later Muhammadan historian has stated that the City of Kanauj was captured and sacked in the year 589 A.H., he has taken for granted that the death of Raja Java-candra must have been followed by the occupation of the capital. There is very little evidence to show that the City of Kanauj was captured during the lifetime of Sultan Shihāb-uddin of Ghur or Malik Qutb-ud-din; but of this we shall hear later on.

The discovery of the Machlishahr grant opened a new page in the history of the Gāhaḍavāla Empire. It proved at once that the statements of the Muhammadans, though not false, yet were incomplete. Thus the same author, Hasan Niẓāmī, gives a complete account of the subjugation of the cities of Delhi and Ajmer, but as we now see, fails to do so in the case of Kanauj. In Elliot's summary, we find a frank statement of the rebellion of Hīrāj or Hemrāj, the brother of the king of Ajmer. The steps taken to subdue him are more fully recorded below (see Elliot, vol. ii, pp. 219 and 225). So now we come to understand that the Gāhaḍavāla dynasty did not come to an end with the death of Jaya-candra on the field of Chandāwar. His son Hariś-candra succeeded to at least part of his dominions. His titles were the same as those of his father and grandfather:—

- l. 19. Srī-Jayac-camdra-deva-pādānudhyāta-Paramabhaṭṭāraka Mahārājādhirāja-Parameśvara-Parama-Māheśvarāśvapati.
- 1. 20. Gajapati-Narapati-Rāja-trayādhipati-Vividha-Vidyā-Vioāra-Vāoaspati Srī-mat-haris-candra-Devo Vijayī.

It is absolutely certain that King Jaya-candra died in the year 590 A.H. = A.D. 1194. So the accession of his son must be placed in the same year. The adherents of the fallen dynasty must have set up the eighteen-year-old son of the late king on the throne and continued to offer as much resistance

J.R.A.S., 1908, p. 791.
 Epi. Ind., vol. x., p. 95.

to the Conquerors as they could. The boy king was just eighteen years old at the time of the death of his father, and at this tender age he was called upon to face an enemy whose record showed hardly any reverses, and who had at that time the resources of the kingdoms of Kanauj and Delhi at his command, as they had looted both treasuries. The statements of the Muhammadan historians make it clear that Sultan Shihāb-ud-dīn occupied the country to the south of the Jūn or Yamunā and a considerable part of the Antarvedi Ganges-Jumna Doab. We have decisive proof of the fact that Kanauj was not taken or thoroughly occupied at this time. But of this we shall have to speak later on. The second important fact brought to light by the Machlishahr grant is that the son of Jayacandra did not lose his throne within a short time but continued to wield sufficient power so as to be able to grant a village in perpetuity to a man six years after his father's death. The date of the Machlishahr grant is given both in words and in figures :--

1. 23.tri-pamcāšat-adhika-dvādaša-šata-samvatsare pausa-māsi paurņimāyām ravi-dine anke-pi samvata 1253 pausa šudi 15 ravau......

The above extract is quoted from Pandit Hirānanda Sāstri's article on the Machlishahr grant. When I examined the grant at Lucknow I read the date as 1257 instead of 1253. After the publication of Pandit Hīrānanda's paper, I obtained casts of the portion of the plate bearing the date, one of which is reproduced here, and I am now quite confident that I was right. The line runs as follows:—

1. 23.tri-pamcāsat = adhika-dvādasa-sata-samvatsare pausa-māsi paurņimāyām ravi-dine ankepi samvatá 1257 pausa sudi 15 ravidine.......

Thus, we have two different dates in one inscription, which is by no means extraordinary. A large number of copper-plates of the Gāhadavāla family bear two different dates, but in each of these cases both dates are expressed in words as well as in numerical figures. Here we find that the month and the day are the same both when expressed in words as well as when expressed in symbols, but the year is quite different. There is no mistake about the reading of the numerical symbols: they are clear enough. I believe Pandit Hīrānanda relied on the date in words as the date in numbers was discrepant and there were a few scratches near the last symbol of the date. But it is apparent that the first date was erased and a second one substituted for it. For this it was necessary to erase the last symbol and re-engrave it. The reason of this

change is not quite apparent as there is room enough at the bottom of the inscription for a postscriptum. The only explanation seems to be that the thing had to be and was done in a hurry. The day and the month were not changed and consequently the new date does not work out satisfactorily. I am indebted to Pandit Hirananda Sastri for the calculation that the Pausa pūrnimā of the Vikrama year 1257 does not fall on a Sunday. The Belkhara inscription is dated in the year 1253 of the same era and the last symbol of that inscription has no resemblance to the last one of this grant. If I am correct then it becomes certain that King Haris-candra continued to reign up to the year A.D. 1200.

The Belkhārā inscription is dated in the year 1253 of the Vikrama era and the date corresponds exactly to Tuesday, the

29th April, A.D. 1197. The text runs as follows:—

(1) Parama-bhattāraketyādi rājāvali....śvapa-

- (2) ti-gajapati-narapati-rajatrāyadhipatı vividha-vi-
- (3) $dy\bar{a}$ -vic \bar{a} ra-v \bar{a} caspati $Sr\bar{i}$ -mat = $K\bar{A}NYAKUBJA$ -VIJAYA-
- (4) RAJYE Samvat 1253 Vaisāsa Sudi 11 bhaume (5) Velasarā-palyām Rānaka Srī Vijayakarnna-rā-
- (6) jye dharmmakari namnamatah Rauta Sri Ana m da
- (7) suta Rāita Sakarūkasya Kirttir = iyam
- (8) Chatitā c = esam Sutradhāra Jālhanena subham....
- (9) ra II Srī-Sakarūkasya valasya gurau...II.

The beginning of this inscription is very peculiar, and, in fact, very few Northern Indian inscriptions contain similar We should compare with this the colophon of one of the Nepalese Manuscripts in the collection of the Cambridge University library:

Paramesvaretyādi rājāvalī pūrvvavat Srī-mad = Govindapāladevānām vinastarājue astatrimsat = samvatsare'bhilikhyamāno... -- MS. Add. 1699. I.²

"The first clause prob-On this Prof. Bendall remarks: ably represents the scribe as declining to recite as before (pūrvavat) the long list of royal titles beginning as they do, in fact, in the first three MSS, noticed—with the title parametera. The great interest, however, of the colophon lies in the phrase vinashtarājye instead of the usual pravardhamāna-vijaya-rājye. I take this to be an acknowledgment that the star of the Buddhist dynasty had set and their empire was in A.D. 1199 "vinasta" "ruined"—a view which well accords with the fact that Govindapāla was the last Buddhist sovereign of whom we have authentic record, and that the Muhammadan

¹ *Ibid.*, vol. v, App. p. 27.
2 Catalogue of Bud. Sans. MSS., Cambridge intro., p. iii.

Conquest of Bengal took place in the very first years of the twelfth century A.D." The date in the Belkhārā inscription differs from that of colophon in three points:—

(1) The inscription begins with the word "Paramabhattāraketyādi" instead of "Paramesvaretyādi." But this difference is trifling, as beginnings of titles may differ in different dynasties.

(2) The name of the king is not definitely mentioned in the Belkharā inscription, as we have that of Govindapāla in

the colophon of the MS. of Pancakara.

(3) We have the phrase "Sri-mat = $K\bar{a}nyakubja$ -vijaya-

rājye" instead of "Vinasta-rājye."

From the initial line and the absence of the king's name and again from the phrase " $Sri-mat = K\bar{a}nyakubja-vijaya$ rājye," it appears that the name of the king of Kānyakubja was not well known at Belkhārā at that time, so it was not written, but the part of the country had passed out of the hands of the kings of Kanyakubja, and to denote that the phrase Paramabhattaraketyādi has been used. But the kingdom of Kanyakubja was not entirely ruined, like the empire of the Palas. So the phrase "Sri-mat = $K\bar{a}nyakubja$ -vijayaraive" had to be used instead of the usual "atita," "gata" or "vinasta-rājye." This is perfectly true as we know from the Machlishahr grant of Haris-candra-deva. After the settlement of the Hūnas as peaceful cultivators India enjoyed freedom and immunity from foreign conquest till the days of the inroads of Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni and the conquests of Sultan Muhammad bin Sam of Ghur. The Muhammadan conquerors were not themselves conquered by the religion and civilization of their subject races, they preserved their identity to the last and so the Indians were nonplussed. The ferocity and cruelty of the new conquerors paralysed them. But they continued to think that the conquest will not endure and at the same time they could not bear to call the rulers of a Mleccha family their kings immediately. This seems to be the reason why even in subjugated provinces the names of old dynasties and rulers continued to be used for some time. Even the conqueror had to relent and so we find that immediately after the conquest coins were being struck in the name of Sultan Muhammad bin Sam but after the type of the coins of the Chauhans and with the legend in Nagari instead of Persian characters. A couple of centuries ago Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni had done the same thing for his Indian subjects in the Punjab. We have no specimens of his Indian coinage in the Indian Museum, but there are several specimens in the British Museum, with the legend in Nagari characters of

¹ Cat. of Coins in the Indian Museum, vol. ii, pt. i, p. 17.

Vol. VII, No. 11.] The Belkhārā Inscription. [N.S.]

the tenth century A.D.1 Copper coins continued to be issued for a long time after the conquest so as to make the currency acceptable to the masses of the subjects, and in the Joint Cabinet of the Indian Museum and the Asiatic Society of Bengal, the last coin is that of Sultan Muhammad ibn Tughlaq Shāh.2 Later on the Nāgarī legend was renewed under the Suris, during the reigns of Farid-ud-din Sher Shah, Islam Shah and Muhammad Bahadur Shah.8

The object of the Belkhārā inscription was to record the erection of the very pillar on which it was incised by a man named Rāüta Sakarūka, son of Rāüta Ānanda, when the Rāṇaka Vijayakarnna was the ruler of Velasarā, i.e. Belkhārā. as the lingual sa did duty for kha in the inscriptions of this period. The Ranaka was probably a feudatory of the Gahadavala Empire, and after the fall of Jaya-candra continued to maintain himself in independence in the fastnesses of the Vindhya ranges. He never declared his independence openly, but continued to acknowledge the supremacy of the Gahadavala kings, so long as they existed in Kanauj. But he was surrounded by Muhammadan Fe-offees, and had lost touch with the centre of his Government at Kanauj. The subjugation of these petty but independent princes were left to the Muhammadan Feudal Lords among whom the country was divided after the conquest, and whose names we learn from the Tabaqati-Nāsirī; such as Hisam-ud-dīn Aghulbaq of Awadh or Oudh and Muhammad Bakhtiyar in Bhagwat and Bhuili.4

It has been already stated above that there is no authority for the statement that the city of Kanauj was conquered in the year A.D. 1193. The principal authorities for the wars of Sultan Muhammad bin Sam are the Tabaqat-i-Nasiri and the Tāj-ul-Ma'aşir. As for the Tāj-ul-Ma'aşir, Elliot's summary does not contain anything about the reduction of the city of Kanauj. The principal incidents of the war with the king of Kanauj are: --

- (1) The battle of Chandawar and the death of Jaichand.
- (2) the capture of the fort of Asni.

(3) the sack of Benares,

and (4) the reduction of the stronghold of Koil or Kol.

There is no mention of the city of Kanauj, nor of the kingdom. In fact the King Jayacandra is called throughout the work, "the Rāi of Benares." The account of the Tabaqāt-i-Nāṣirī is very meagre. It consists of three parts:—.

¹ Lane-Poole, Brit. Mus. Cat. of Oriental Coins, vol. ii, pp. 150-51, pl. vi.

² Cat. of Coins, Ind. Mus., vol. ii, pt. i, p. 49. ⁸ Ibid., pp. 84-123.

⁴ Tabaqāt-i-Nāṣirī (Bib. Ind.), pp. 549-550 ⁶ Elliot, vol. ii, pp. 222-225.

- (1) "In the year 590 H., the Sultan (again) marched from Ghaznin and advanced towards Kinnauj and Benares, and, in the vicinity of Chandwar, he overthrew Rae Jai-Chand, and by that victory three hundred and odd elephants fell into his hands."

 —Raverty's translation, p. 470.
- (2) In the list of "Victories, Successes and Holy-wars," we have "...... Jai Chānd of Banāras, Banāras, Ķinnauj, Kalinjar, territory of Awādh, Mālwā, Adwand Bihār, Lakhanāwati," —p. 491.
- (3) The only mention of the war with Kanauj in the account of the events of the rule of Sultan Qutb-ud-dIn, Ibak, consists of: ".... and, in the year 590 H., Kutb-ud-dIn proceeded, at the august stirrup of the victorious Sultan, along with the Sipah-Salar, 'Izz-ud-dIn, Husain, son of Khārmīl, both of them being the leaders of the van of the army, and fell upon the Rae of Banāras, Jai-Chānd, on the confines of Chandwāl and overthrew him." —p. 516.

So we find that the Tāj-ul-Ma'asir does not contain even the name of Kanauj. In the Tabaqāt-i-Nāsiri, Sultan Muhammad bin Sam is said to have advanced towards Kinnauj and Banaras, but there is no mention of the capture of the city of Kanauj anywhere. In the list of victories we have the name of Kinnauj. But this list of victories of Sultan Mu'iz-ud-din Muhammad is not at all accurate, because we have the names Adward Bihar and Lakhanawati included in this list when it is well known that the Sultan never set his foot in the country to the East of the Sone. Adward Bihar is the same as Uddandapura-Vihāra as we find in one of the inscriptions of Surapala II of the Pala dynasty of Bengal. It is also the same as the fort of Bihar, which was the only Bihar conquered by Muhammad Bukhtiyar. We have a fairly complete account of the wars of Bukhtiyar in Bihar and Bengal, and so we are able to detect the mistake in the list of victories, etc., but in the case of Kanauj, does not the absence of even the name of it in the Tāj-ul-Ma'aşir convince us that there is some mistake. Later on, in the account of Shamsi victories, i.e. the victories of Sultan Shams-ud-din Altamsh, we find the reduction of Kanauj expressly mentioned :-

ber of the above so-called victories and conquests are not even mentioned in the reign of I-yal-timish, and several of those that are were effected by his Maliks; but neither these nor the remainder are all mentioned in the account given of their lives. What our author often calls a victory may be judged of from the mention of Kūḥram, Budāun (which I-yāl-timish held the fief of), Kinnauj and several other places, which were taken in Sultan Muizz-ud-dīn's reign, either by himself or Malik Kutb-ud-din, Ibak."

—p. 628, note 2.

But I believe Major Raverty could not grasp the purport of these double mentions properly. There are two different ways in which this can be explained:—

(1) The city of Kanauj was taken by Sultan Muhammad bin Sām after the battle of Chandawār, but subsequently fell into the hands of the Hindus, and so had to be re-conquered by Altāmsh; or

(2) only the kingdom of Kanauj was partly conquered by Muhammad bin Sām, the reduction of the city being effected

during the reign of Altamsh.

I believe the second way is more acceptable because, in the first place, the city of Kanauj is expressly mentioned in the list of Shamsi victories, Shergarh being the special honorific epithet of the city of Kanauj. Previously, this title was considered to have been conferred either by Sher Shah or his son Islām Shāh, but its mention in the Tabagāt-i-Nāsiri makes it much older. It is more probable that Maulana Minhajuddin meant the kingdom and not the city of Kanaui when he wrote that the Sultan started towards Kanauj and Benares. Some trouble was going on in the newly conquered kingdom, and it is evident even from the Tabaqat-i-Nasiri; thus we have at the beginning: "Badaun, Banaras and the defeat of Rae Man" and again at the beginning of the account of Malik Nasir-ud-din Mahmud: "...... after a considerable time, in the year 623 H., the territory of Awadh was entrusted to his charge. In that country that prince performed numerous commendable actions, and carried on holv war, as by the tenets of the faith enjoined, so that his praise for manliness and boldness became diffused throughout the area of Hindustan."

"The accursed Bartu (or Britu), beneath whose sword above a hundred and twenty thousand Musalmans had attained martyrdom, he overthrew and sent to hell; and the refractory infidels, who were in different parts of the country of Awadh, he reduced and overcame, and brought a considerable number under obedience."—pp. 628-29. We have another proof of the

¹ Cat. of Coins, Indian Museum, vol. ii, part i, p. 117-118, vol. iii, intro., pp. lxxiv.

taking of the city of Kanauj during the reign of Altamsh: it is a coin struck to commemorate the reduction of the city. 1881, Dr. Hoernle published the coin for the first time. and he read the marginal legend containing the mint-name as :-

Later, in 1907, the Hon. Mr. H. Nelson Wright, in his Catalogue of Coins in the Indian Museum, gives the reading of the marginal legend of this coin as:-

The marginal legend of this coin taken by itself shows that Mr. Wright's reading is the correct one, but the legend should be compared with that of another one, a coin of the Bengal Sultan Mughisuddin Yuzbak, whose coin also was published by Dr. Hoernle at the same time.8 On comparison it appears certain that what has been read by Mr. Wright as is really the name of a place and the second name beginning with "Ko" seems to be Gwaliyur or Gwalior. I have examined the coin repeatedly during the last three years, and I am almost convinced that the second name ought to be read as "Gwāliyūr." There are three dots over the first name and Mr. Wright has assigned one to the first letter, thus making it Fe, and two to the second one making it Te, and so the last letter becomes He. But on comparison with the coin of Ghiyāş-ud-din Iwaz, one feels certain that it is a name and to assign two of the dots to the first letter, making it Qaf, one to the second making it $N\bar{u}n$, and supplying one more for the last one, a thing by no means uncommon for this class of coins, thus making it Jim. So the word spells out Qanauj, the accepted spelling for the name of the ancient Kanyakubja in Perso-Arabic Historical Literature. These coins are very rare and it is quite certain that they were struck to commemorate the conquest of some part of India. We have another coin of a similar nature in the Indian Museum though the legend is differently worded. It is a coin of the Bengal Sultan Sikandar Shāh of the First Iliyas Shāhī Dynasty.4 It was struck in the "country of Chāwalistan or Kāmrū" in the Hijra year 759 = A.D. 1357. It is well known that Muhammadans never succeeded in conquering Kāmrūp or Assam and the very name of the mint "the country of Chāwalistan" or Kāmrūp makes it certain that it was struck to commemorate the invasion. Similarly we have the name of the mint as

J.A.S.B., 1881, part i, p. 66.
 I.M. Cat., vol. ii, part i, p. 21, No. 39.
 Ibid., vol. ii, part ii, p. 146.
 Ibid., p. 153, No. 38.

"Bilad-ul-Hind" "the country of India," and it appears certain that this coin also was struck in honour of the conquest. Unfortunately the date of this coin is irrecoverably gone, otherwise the date of the taking of Kanauj like that of Nudiah would have been settled. But it is certain that the city of Kanauj was taken some time during the reign of Altamsh, i.e. between A.H. 607-633 = A.D. 1210-1235. It is more probable that the actual conquest took place in the year A.H. 623 = A.D.1226, when Malik Nāsir-ud-dīn Mahmūd was placed in charge of the province of Oudh and when Bartu or Britu was overthrown. It coincides with the date of the evacuation of the Upper provinces by Seoji and Saitārām, as recorded in the Bardic chronicles. In a couplet quoted by Cunningham on the authority of Mukji the Bard of the Khichi Chauhans, the date of the migration is Vikrama Samvat 1283 = A.D. 1226 = а.н. 623.

The Bithu inscription of Siha the Rathoda, recently published by Mr. D. R. Bhandarkar, shows that even in 1273 A.D. it was known that Siha was the son of Prince Setrām; so the names handed down by tradition are genuine. The date of the Bithu inscription, v.s. 1330, also shows that v.s. 1283 as the date of the Rathoda emigration is not improbable Ind. Ant., vol. xl, p. 181 f.

Thus the reduction of the ancient city of Kanauj by the Muhammadans took place thirty-three years after the battle of Chandāwar and the death of Jaya-candra and twenty-six

years after the last date in the Machlishahr grant.

History has hitherto failed to record the exploits of the boy-king, the last of the proud Gahadavalas, who came to the throne at the age of eighteen, to face difficulties at the sight of which many a war-worn veteran would have turned pale. The fall of ancient empires and the destruction of time-honoured families were the order of the day. The ferocity and the cruelty of the conquerors, their unrelenting religious zeal struck terror into the heart of the Indian populace. It required a cool head and a stout heart to stick to the ancient capital and the fortunes of a falling kingdom, situated right in the heart of the newly-formed empire of religious zealots. Punjab was lost a couple of centuries ago and the Chauhan had fallen. After the battle of Chandawar practically the whole of the Antarvedi, i.e. the Ganges-Jumna-Doab, had fallen into the hands of the victors, and immediately afterwards the last remnant of the Pāla Empire had disappeared. Bengal was torn by internal dissensions and had fallen an easy victim to the marauding expeditions of Muhammad Bukhtiyar Khilji, and the royal family had taken refuge in the waterbound strongholds of Eastern Bengal. Only the last Gahadavala was making a stand for a remnant of his ancestral dominions. The very name of the last king of the Gahadavala

dynasty was unknown to the Cāraṇas of Rajputana. "The son of Jaya Chandra is called Set-Rām by Tod, Sītā-Ram by Mukji, and Sweta Rāya by Dr. Hall's informant. All these various readings are clearly intended for the same name; but they differ utterly from the name which has been handed down by the tradition and by song throughout the North-West Provinces. Everywhere the son of Jaya Chandra is called Lākhan, and in song he is known as the Kanaujiyā Rāi." Tod places the migration of the Royal family in the Vikrama year A.D. 1268=1211. Cunningham places it in 1283 according to Mukji's books which he had himself examined and quotes a verse which he heard from the Bard's sons.

An attempt to fix the boundaries of the Gahadavala kingdom would probably meet with some success at the present date. After the battle of Chandawar, the fortresses of Koil or Kol and Asni fell into the hands of the Muhammadans. As I have already stated Asni was an important stronghold even in the times of the Pratiharas. Mahmud of Ghazni captured this fort after the sack of Kanaui and the flight of Jaipal or Rājyapāla.8 In the west Badāun the ancient Vodamayuta was taken once during the lifetime of Sultan Muhammad Bin Sam, and in the list of his victories it is entered as a holy-war (Jihād). Altāmsh was the feudatory of Budāun when he was invited by the nobles of Dehli to ascend the throne, but after that we find that Budaun is mentioned at the beginning of the list of Altamsh's victories. The only probable meaning seems to be that Budaun and the surrounding country formed a sort of buffer between the Gahadavala kingdom and the Muhammadan Empire and was continually changing hands. The eastern boundary is more difficult to settle. Tirhut was not conquered till the time of Altamsh, and even then simply over-run, and probably the modern districts of Jaunpur, Gorakhpur and Gonda were the last remnants of the empire of the Gahadavalas.

¹ Cunningham, Arch. Surv. Rep., vol. xi, p. 123.

³ Elliot, vol. ii, p. 46—Tarikh-Yamini.

Tabaqat-i-Nāsirī (Bib. Ind.), pp. 471 and 491. bid., p. 627.

56. Contribution to our knowledge of Indian Earwigs.

By MALCOLM BURR, D.Sc., M.A., F.E.S., &c.

Since the publication of the half volume on Dermaptera in the Fauna of British India series, substantial additions have been made to our knowledge; the classification has been revised, and in the following pages, sixteen species are added to the list, of which eleven are new to science: several of the others have been described since the appearance of the half volume in question, and two or three genera are added to the Indian list, and several imperfectly known species are here dealt with more fully.

The Pygidicranidae are enriched by the inclusion among them of the Echinosomatinae, and also some Ethiopian and

Neotropical subfamilies.

The Labiduridae are not much affected, except by the removal of the Echinosomatinae.

The Labiidae have been profoundly altered by an outline revision published by me in the Deutsche Entomologische National-Bibliothek, No. 8, pp. 58-61 (1911): the new arrangement is referred to below.

The Chelisochinae are given the rank of a family, but otherwise are not much altered.

The Forficulidae are altogether recast: the subfamilies

represented in India are as follows:—

Anechurinae, in which the doubtful genus Lipodes is provisionally ranged: Homotages is removed to the Forficulinae which is enriched by several other non-Indian genera, several out of the old Opisthocosmiinae, which is otherwise scarcely altered, but the formerly suppressed subfamily Eudohrninae is revived from Eudohrnia and also Kosmetor.

The whole of the system, as it stands to-day, is given in detail in Wytsman's Genera Insectorum, Dermaptera, 1911, Brussels, to which the reader is referred for further particulars. My own arrangement and Zacher's do not differ materially except in details, and it is to be hoped that we have here the foundations of a natural system which will be eventually adopted. The arrangement of the Family Forficulidae is, however, purely provisional, and is liable to considerable alterations.

The page numbers quoted in this paper at the upper lefthand corner of each description or note refer to my half volume

in the "Fauna."

p. 17.

With reference to the food and habits of earwigs, it is interesting to quote an extract from a letter from Dr. Annandale:-

"The giant stinging nettle of the Himalayas (Girardinia heterophyla, Decne.) is, when in flower, extraordinarily attractive to many species of earwigs. I have not seen specimens of the group in such variety elsewhere as I did on the inflorescence of this plant at Bhim Tal in Kumaon in September, 1906. The fruit had already begun to form, and representatives of the following species were greedily devouring the unripe seeds :-

Diplatys siva, Forcipula trispinosa, Allodahlia macropyga, A. coriacea, Forficula planicollis, and Eudohrnia metallica.

Apparently the plant possesses no attraction for earwigs except when in this condition, for I have often examined it at other times of the year without finding a single specimen."

Concerning Diplatys gladiator Mr. Gravely writes: "This species is abundant in Calcutta during the rains and a few weeks following on whitewashed walls on the Maidan, where it runs about very rapidly and erratically, pausing for a moment only when it meets with anything that excites its curiosity. I once saw a couple apparently feeding on the remains of some small kind of fig (probably the fruit of the Pipal tree-Ficus religiosa) and have watched specimens catching and devouring small May-flies on walls under the arc-lamps in the Eden Gardens. As the slightest struggle on the part of the May-fly is sufficient to send the Diplatys rushing wildly off again, I doubt whether the latter ever captures really healthy flies."

Dr. Annandale has recently taken specimens of both Labidura riparia and L. bengalensis under stones between tide-marks on the shore of the Chilka Lake in N. E. Madras.

p. 31.

The classification of the earwigs has undergone a radical change bwing to the appearance of Zacher's book, and the work is not yet complete. The system is based upon the structure of the opisthomeres, that is to say, the pygidium and its appendages, upon the venation of the wings, and upon the structure of the genitalia.

Most of these characters are too difficult for ordinary purposes of identification, as their study involves the dissection of many specimens and preparation of very numerous microscopic

slides.

The order Dermaptera is divided into three suborders. Of these two, the Arixenina and Hemimerina each include a single aberrant subparasitic species foreign to the Indian Fauna. The third suborder, the Forficulina, includes the true earwigs.

[N.S.]

This is divided into three Superfamilies, the Protodermaptera, consisting of the Pygidicraniidae and the Labiduridae, the Paradermaptera, with the single family Apachyidae, and the Eudermaptera, including the remaining three families, the Labidae, Chelisochidae, and Forficulidae.

р. 43.

Fig. 3 F is attributed by error to *Diplatys fletcheri*: it really represents the ventral aspect of the apex of the abdomen of *D. gladiator*, Burr.

p. 51.

Diplatys rujescens, Kirby.

The Indian Museum possesses specimens from : -

E. Himalayas: Kurseong, 5000 ft., 7-ix-09. Nos. 2878 and 2880 (N. Annandale).

UNITED PROVINCES: Kumaon, Bhim Tal, 4500 ft., 21-x-06. "Under stone, sitting on a mass of eggs, which it refused to leave." No. 631/15 (N. Annandale).

р. 53.

Zacher has restricted the genus Pygidicrana to the South American forms, in which the apical chitinised portion of the penis, the parameres, are slender and narrow, with no teeth: for the oriental species, and consequently for all the Indian species included by me in Pygidicrana, he erects the new genus Kalocrania, with K. marmoricrura as its type. Therefore, for the six hitherto-known Indian species, together with the following, the generic name Kalocrania, Zacher, replaces Pygidicrana. Serville.

p. 56.

Kalocrania valida, Dohrn.

Father Astruc found a short-winged variety common in the Madura District. He writes me that "they live under the bark of trees, chiefly where some accidental wound has made the bark burst." He found a female with some forty eggs, somewhat oblong, "attached by the thinner extremity and set in some order." Father Astruc also found one apparently about to attack a female of a large Attacus atlas, which he had pinned to a tree to attract males.

Kalocrania raja, sp. n.

Large and powerful.

Antennae yellow.

Head yellow, with big black spot on the frons.

Pronotum dark-brown, with yellow sides and faint median yellow stripe: nearly oval, subtruncate posteriorly.

Scutellum equilateral, prominent.

Elytra black, with discoidal yellow spot, broad, rather short, apically truncate.

Wings rudimentary.

Legs yellow.

Abdomen deep brown, gradually dilated towards the apex. Last dorsal segment inflated, ample, deep chocolate, with a median sulcus, finely rugulose, the external angles produced as a crested tubercle.

Penultimate ventral segment ample, very broad, and

rounded.

Forceps subcontiguous, broad and depressed asymmetrically arouate, the external margin raised near the base with an erect blunt crested tooth.

Long. corporis .. 30 mm.

India: Nilgiri Hills, 6000 ft., i-08. H. L. Andrewes, 1 & (Type in B.M.).

This species resembles *P. valida*, but differs in the coloration, uniform legs, short, truncate elytra and aborted wings, crest on exterior angles of the last dorsal segment, and external erect basal tooth of the forceps.

The structure of the last dorsal segment and forceps is almost identical with that of *D. kallipyga*.

p. 64.

Picrania angustata, Dohrn.

I refer to this species a male in my collection taken by Mr. E. E. Green in the Nilgiris, at Kharkur Ghal, on April 17th, 1910.

pp. 67 and 68.

The placing of Palex sparattoides, Borm., as a subfamily of the Labiduridae is confirmed by Zacher after study of the

male gonapophyses.

I have come to the conclusion that the creature described by Dohrn under the name *Platylabia major* is nothing more or less than the female of this species, and Dohrn's name must therefore stand: *Palex* falls then as a homonym of *Platylabia*, and the *Palicinae* become the *Platylabinae*: see also note in "Fauna," pp. 124 and 125.

p. 70.

The Echinosomatinae must be removed from the Labiduridae to the Pygidicranidae, in spite of the absence of keels on

775

the femora: these are not a scientific essential characteristic of that group, but merely a convenient feature for purpose of identification.

p. 73.

Subfamily ALLOSTETHINAE.

This subfamily includes a few species of powerfully built, dark-coloured earwigs, only known from the Oriental Region.

It is characterized by the form of the sternal plates; both the prosternum and mesosternum being sharply pointed posteriorly; the second tarsal segment has a tufted lobe, somewhat resembling that of the *Chelisochidae*.

Three genera are known, and as they may in time all be discovered in India, and still more probably in Burma, we

give the following table of genera:-

Table of Genera.

1. Totally apterous: metanotum concave (as in larvae): (virga inflated at the base)

1. Gonolabidura, Zacher.

- 1. 1. Elytra always, wings usually, well developed and metanotum truncate (virga not inflated).
 - Size large. (About 30 mm.): (virga feebly bowed, shorter than the praeputial sack: metaparameres powerful, elliptical)

.. 2. Allostethus, Verhoeff.

2. 2. Size smaller (10—21 mm.) (virga strongly bowed, longer than the praeputial sack: metaparameres feeble, apically pointed)

... 3. Allosthetella, Zacher.

The genus Allostethus includes the well-known Malayan earwig formerly known as Psalis indica, Hagenb.: it is a powerful, dark-coloured, usually fully-winged species, sometimes with an ill-defined yellowish spot on the elytra. It may be discovered in Burma, whence I have seen a distinctly Allostethid, but indeterminable, young larva. Allosthetella, Zacher, contains a Malayan species, which resembles the above and its allies, but is much smaller.

Genus GONOLABIDURA, Zacher.

Type: Gonolabidura volzi, Zacher. (= piligera, Borm.).
Build powerful: antennae multi-segmentate, 4 and 5 segments short: totally apterous, the metanotum concave behind

of larval form: pro- and mesosterna strongly narrowed posteriorly: abdomen more or less parallel-sided: forceps with branches subcontiguous, robust, and trigonal.

This genus is very closely related to Allostethus, Verh.,

from which it differs mainly in being totally apterous.

Range: -- Oriental Region.

Gonolabidura astruci, sp. n.

Size moderate: build robust: colour blackish brown.

Antennae brown, with 16-17 segments: third not very long, fourth shorter, fifth nearly equal the third, rest a little longer, subpyriform, slender at the base.

Head tumid, smooth and shining sutures obsolete, broad

at the base: eyes small.

Pronotum transverse, rectangular, smooth, shining, median suture indistinct: meso- and metanota larval, smooth and shining.

Prosternum short, acute basally: mesosternum acute: metasternum with lobe short, rectangular, transverse, truncate.

Legs brown, paler apically: tarsi long and slender.

Abdomen shining brown above, broad and dilated, slightly narrower at the apex than in the middle: basal segments smooth, the others gradually more strongly punctate: at the sides, segments 7—9 are strongly convex, but not acute, and rugulose: ventral surface dull brown, pubescent.

Last dorsal segment ample, rectangular, transverse, shining, and almost smooth, median suture distinct, posterior margin truncate: on each side there is an obtuse straight keel.

Penultimate ventral segment broadly rounded, the apex

itself truncate, with a thick yellow pubescence.

Apical segment of parameres lanceolate, very long and narrow.

Pygidium typical, not protruding.

Forceps of with the branches remote, robust, trigonal at the base itself, then attenuate and strongly arcuate: 2 subcontiguous, nearly straight, the inner margin crenate.

•	σ.	•
Long. corporis	15 mm.	18-19.5
,, forcipis	$\dots 2.75$	3· 5

SOUTH INDIA: Madura District; Shembaganur.

Several specimens, in fungi and under rotten bark (coll. mihi Astrue).

I am indebted to Father Astruc for this fine and very dis-

tinctive species.

At first glance, it looks like a robust Gonolabis, but the structure of the tarsi and sternal plates show at once that it is an Allostethid. It differs from G. piligera from Sumatra, in the shorter, broader body and more arcuate forceps.

p. 76.

Psalis femoralis, Dohrn.

The Indian Museum possesses a species, which I refer to this species, from—

E. HIMALAYAS: Kurseong, 5000 ft., April 7, 1909. (D. Lynch)

pp. 81 and 82.

Anisolabis colossea, Dohrn, is now placed in a distinct genus Titanolabis, Burr (Tr. Ent. Soc., p. 168, 1910), characterized by the rounded lobes of the meso- and metasternum, and also total absence of any rudiments of elytra.

Homæolabis, Borelli.

Homæolabis, Borelli, Boll. Mus. Torino, xxvi, No. 640. p. l. (1911).

Differs from *Euborellia* only in the form of the sternal plates: the meso- and metasterna are not truncate, but rather narrow: produced into rounded lobes: from *Titanolabis* it differs in the presence of rudimentary elytra.

Type and only known species: H. maindroni, Borelli.

This genus stands in the same relation to *Titanolabis* that *Euborellia* stands to *Anisolabis*.

Homæolabis maindroni, Borelli.

Homeolabis maindroni, Bor., Bol. Mus. Tor., vol. xxvi, No. 640, p. 4 (1911).

Long. corporis 15.5—16 mm. 15 mm. , forcipis ... 2.5

General colour black, the legs orange yellow.

Antennae red at the base, the rest dark, with some anteapical segments pale: 4th segment a little shorter than the third, fifth about equal to third: segments all rather thick, and subovate, rather long.

Head deep reddish black, smooth and tumid, sutures obso-

lete: mouth parts deep red.

Pronotum rectangular, a little longer than broad, and slightly widened posteriorly; black, with a median transverse depression and sides reddish, distinctly keeled:

Prosterum parallel-sided:

Meso- and metasterna narrow, not truncate, but produced into a rather narrow, prominent, rounded lobe.

Elytra small lateral flaps, narrow at the base.

Meso- and metanota smooth and black.

Legs orange yellow: first tarsal segment a little longer than the tumid third.

Abdomen black, punctulation very fine and feeble.

Last dorsal segment almost smooth, broader than long, truncate posteriorly, rectangular in the o almost so in the 2.

Penultimate ventral segment rounded in both sexes.

Forceps alike in both sexes, the branches stout, contiguous, straight, unarmed, trigonal at the base, somewhat depressed.

S. India: Pondichery (Mus. Paris, Type).

CEYLON: Peradeniya, 1 o 1 Aug. 1910 (Green; coll. mihi): Kala-oya, 12-05 1 2 (coll. mihi): Kandy, 12-vi-10 1 & (India) Museum, No. 8427-16).

At first glance this species looks like a large E. annandalei. but it is characterized by the contiguous, straight forceps,

alike in both sexes.

It is sharply distinguished by the form of the sternal plates, which characterize the genus.

p. 84.

Anisolabis kudagae, Burr.

CEYLON: Hagatale, February 11th, 1910, a female under a decayed log, surrounded by young (Green, coll, mihi).

p. 87.

The generic name Borellia being preoccupied by Rehn I have been obliged to alter this name, and have proposed Euborellia (Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., xxxviii, p. 448, note, 1910).

Table of Species.

Elytra meeting on the sutural 1. margin.

Elytra exposing half the meso-2. notum.

3. Forceps of similar, not arcuate: sides of abdominal segments 4-9 in the o not acute nor carinulate

.. 1. greeni, Burr.

3-3. Forcep of asymmetrical: sides of abdominal segments 4-9 acute, carinulate

.. 2. astruci, sp. n.

2-2. Elytra covering mesonotum almost entirely: (sides of abdomen & acute, carinulate: forceps o asymmetrical: penultimate ventral segment of with tufts of long bristles). 3. penicillata; Bor.

1-1. Elytra lateral, not meeting at the suture.

Femora ringed with black .. 4. stali. Dohrn.

2-2, Femora not ringed .. 5. annandalei, Burr.

Euborellia astruci, sp. n.

Small: deep black. Antennae dark brown, weal segments rather yellowish.

Head jet black, finely punctulate, tumid, sutures obsolete.

Pronotum black, brownish posteriorly and at the sides almost square, very slightly wider posteriorly than anteriorly.

Elytra as in *E. greeni*, exposing about half the mesonotum: black, shading to reddish brown.

Legs dark brown.

Abdomen jet black, the segments bordered with reddish: densely punctulate: sides of segments in the & 4-9 acute. carinulate:

Last dorsal segment in the 2 transverse, truncate, with

a median sulcus: similar in the 2 but sulcus feebler.

Penultimate ventral segment broadly rounded: in the 2

narrower.

Forceps with the branches in the o trigonal, asymmetrical, the left branch feebly, the right strongly, arcuate; in the 2 contiguous, trigonal, simple.

> 9.5 mm. Long. corporis 1.75 ,, forcipis

S. India: Madura, Shembaganur: many specimens.

(Astruc, coll. mihi).

This species resembles E. greeni generally, agreeing especially in the form of the elytra, but the punctulation is stronger, the colour deeper, the sides of the abdomen are scute and carinulate in the male, and the penultimate ventral segment broader, and the forceps of the male asymmetrical.

From E. penicillata it differs in the smaller size. denser and coarser punctulation, darker colour, and broader penulti-

mate ventral segment, without tufts of bristles.

Father Astruc found it under stones and in fungi. He notes that they mate about the end of February, and that the eggs lie in a heap.

Euborellia penicillata, Borelli.

Euborellia penicellata, Bor., Boll. Mus. Tor., vol. xxvi, No. 640, p. 3 (1911).

Size medium: colour black, legs orange.

Antennae with segments 1-3 orange, the rest blackish brown.

Head black, mouth parts orange, sutures indistinct, smooth.

Pronotum rectangular, a trifle longer than broad, black, the sides slightly reflexed, and narrowly bordered with orange; smooth.

Elytra ample for the genus, almost covering the mesonotum.

Legs orange.

Abdomen punctulate, moderately dilated about the middle, deep reddish black: sides of segments 4—9 in the 3 acute, rugulose and carinulate.

Last dorsal segment of rectangular, with a median sulcus,

truncate posteriorly: in the 2 similar, but narrower.

Penultimate ventral segment & rounded, nearly smooth: near the apex, in the middle, there is a pair of diverging tufts

of long, stiff, yellow bristles.

Forceps in the 3 with the branches remote, trigonal in the basal half, asymmetrical, the left branch feebly, right branch strongly arcuate: in the 2 simple, trigonal, subcontiguous, gently arcuate.

Long. corporis .. 14 mm. 12.5 mm. , forcipis .. 2.25 2

S. India: Octacamund, under stone, & and Q, 12th August, 1910. (E. E. Green, coll. mihi). Nilghiri, Coonoor

(Mus. Paris, Type).

This species closely resembles *E. greeni*, Burr, but differs in the smoother head and pronotum, rather more strongly punctulate abdomen, but especially in the larger elytra, which only expose a very small portion of the mesonotum: also in the acute and keeled sides of the abdomen in the male, and asymmetrical forceps.

Very characteristic is the peculiar pair of diverging tufts of long yellow bristles near the apex of the penultimate ventral

segment.

p. 92.

Forcipula decolyi, Borm.

Sikkim: Gangtok, Sept. 9th, 1909 (coll. mihi).

p. 108.

Ctenisolabis bifoveolata, Bol.

Father Astruc has sent me several specimens of this species, which was hitherto known only from Bolivar's unique type: they were found at Shembaganur, in the Madura district in Southern India. It was found under stones, in company with Euborellia astruci.

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The antennal segments are much shorter than indicated in Bolivar's figure, and the mesonotal keels exclude it from Leptisolabis: it therefore falls into Ctenisolabis.

It is easy to recognize by the relatively large size, uniform red legs and remote, arcuate forceps of the male: those of the female are the same as in other female Brachvlabids, that is, simple, and contiguous.

p. 106.

Genus Nannisolabis, Burr.

Table of Species.

1. Pronotum longer than broad.

2. Pronotum parallel-sided, densely punc-.. 1. philetas, Burr.

2. 2. Pronotum gently dilated posteriorly

nearly smooth ... 2. willeyi, Burr.

1. 1. Pronotum broader than long, widened posteriorly, very finely punctulate 3. formicoides sp. n.

p. 108.

Nannisolabis formicoides, sp. n.

Small, shining black, very finely punctulate, with fine

golden pubescence.

Antennae black, paler towards the apex: first segment long, and thick : second minute : third rather long, the rest rather short, and growing thicker towards the apex.

Head shining black: eyes small, anterior.

Pronotum a little wider than long, broadened posteriorly:

Mesonotum with tumid shoulders.

Legs nearly black.

Abdomen finely punctulate, black, sub-divided before the apex, which is narrowed: Forceps with the branches short, conical, gently incurved, sub-contiguous in the o, contiguous in the Q.

Long. corporis ... 5.5—6 mm. 7-7·5 mm. ,, forcipis

S. India: - Madura district, Shembaganur, numerous

specimens, under dry cow-dung (Astruc).

This little species, with a superficial resemblance to an ant, differs from N. philetas, which it otherwise resembles, in the form of the pronotum; it is smaller and blacker than N. willeyi.

The female is a little larger than the male but the two

sexes are very much alike.

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p. 110.

Family iv. LABIIDAE.

This family has now been revised by me and split into several sub-families.

The following is the arrangement of the sub-families represented in India:—

Table of Subfamilies.

1. Head transverse, sutures very distinct, broad posteriorly, narrowed anteriorly; eyes rather large and prominent, as long as, or longer than, the first antennal segment

.. 1. Spongiphorinae.

1. 1. Head narrow, more or less parallel sided, the sutures nearly obsolete; eyes smaller, scarcely longer than the first antennal segment . . . 2. Labrinae.

The distinction between these two groups, though well marked in the typical forms, is less marked in the Indian genera.

There are five other subfamilies, but these are not yet known to be represented in India.

p. 111.

The genus Spongiphora, Serv., is now restricted to a few South American forms. The subfamily Spongiphorinae is separated from the subfamily Labiinae by the broader and more depressed head, more inflated cheeks and more prominent eyes. As thus defined, it is represented by two genera in India: Spongovostox, Burr, and Irdex, Burr.

I. Subfamily SPONGIPHORINAE.

This is mainly an American subfamily: it is characterized by the broad and depressed head, strong sutures and prominent eyes.

Table of Genera.

1. Cheeks tumid, shorter than the eyes . 1. Irdex, Burr.

1. 1. Cheeks smooth, as long as the eyes, or longer . . 2. Spongovostox, Burr.

p. 114.

Genus Erotesis, Burr.

The original specimen of Spongiphora sphinz, Burr, which is the type of this genus, has been undoubtedly identified with

Proreus simulans, Stal., so the genus falls as coincident with

It. therefore, remains to define the true position of Labidura? decipiens, Kirby.

Genus Index. Burr.

Irdex, Burr, Deutsch. Ent. Nat. Bibl., Vol. 2, p. 59 (1911). Antennae with about 15 cylindrical segments, the fourth nearly as long as the third: head broad and depressed. Eves prominent. Elytra and wings perfectly developed. Legs slender. Tarsi long and slender; the first and third segments equally long, the second minute. Abdomen nearly parallel. Pygidium prominent. Forceps remote, elongate, depressed.

This genus contains the single species hitherto known as

Spongiphora nitidipennis, Borm.

Additional Indian localities are :---

MADURA: Shembaganur, common. (Astruc, coll. Burr).

E. HIMALAYAS: Kurseong, 5000 ft. (Ind. Mus.).

The latter specimen is a small pale variety, with very hairy, buff elytra, and long narrow, apically emarginate pygidium.

Genus Spongovostox, Burr.

Spongovostox, Burr, Deutsch. Ent. Nat. Bibl., No. 8, p. 59 (1911).

TYPE: Spongiphora quadrimaculata, Stål.

Sizes small or medium. Antennae with from fifteen to twenty segments, all cylindrical, the fourth nearly as long as the third. Head depressed, rather broad, sutures distinct. Eyes big. Pronotum often widened posteriorly, or subquadrate. Legs slender. Tarsi slender, the third segment much longer than the second.

Range: Tropical Asia, Africa, America and Australia.

1. Spongovostox semiflavus, Burr. (p. 113).

This is the only known Indian species of the genus, although seventeen species are at present included in it. Additional localities:

CEYLON: Peradeniva and Ruanwella, several from under bark of diseased rubber-tree (Hevea). (Green, coll. Burr).

Subfamily LABIINAE.

This subfamily includes Chaetospania, Sphingolabis, Labia and a few new genera. They are mostly small species, with body moderately, or sometimes strongly, depressed: the head is smooth and tumid, the sutures nearly obsolete, the eyes small.

Table of Genera.

1. Fourth and fifth antennal segments as long as the third, or longer.

2. Head subsinuate on posterior margin; body decidedly depressed: anterior femora thickened.

.. 1. Chaetospania, Karsch.

2. 2. Head truncate posteriorly; anterior femora not thickened.

.. 2. Labia, Leach.

1. 1. Fourth and fifth antennal segments shorter than the third, often conical. .. 3. Prolabia, Leach.

Genus Labia, Leach.

This genus stands as arranged in the monograph of Indian Earwings, with the following modification: Spongiphora lutea, Borm., is included, and L. arachidis, Yers., and L. nigrella, Dubr., and L. luzonica, Dohrn, are removed to Prolabia, Burr.

p. 118.

Labia curvicauda, Motsch.

Additional localities:

BENGAL: Calcutta, Sibpur, Royal Botanic Gardens, "in fruit of Nipa fructitans." (Ind. Mus.): Calcutta, "on wing at midday." (Ind. Mus.).

E. HIMALAYAS: Kurseong, 5000 ft. (Ind. Mus.).

Genus Prolabia, Burr.

Prolabia, Burr, Deutsch Ent. Nat. Bibl., Vol. 2, p. 60 (1911) Type: P. arachidis, Yersin.

Agrees with Labia, but the segments of the antennae beyond the third are all short, and generally more or less conical or pyriform.

We remove to this genus the following species:-

L. nigrella, Dubr.,

L. luzonica, Dohrn.

L. arachidis, Yers.

p. 124.

We have seen (ante, p. 774) how the name Platylabia replaces Palex, with the single species P. major, of which Palex s parattoides is a synonym.

For the remaining species, which were hitherto ranged in Platylabia, we revive the genus Chaetospania, Karsch, the type of which is Ch. inornata, Karsch, from Madagascar.

The characterization given of Platylabia holds good for

Chdetospania, as the name only was wrongly used.

Genus Chaetospania, Karsch.

Chaetospania, Karsch, Berl. ent. Zeit., xxx, p. 87 (1886). Platylabia (partim), Dohrn, Stett. ent. Zeit., xxviii, p 347 (1867).

Labidophora (partim), Scudder, Proc. Bost. Soc. N. H.,

xviii, p. 297 (1876).

Sparattina, Verhoeff, Zool. Anzeig., No. 665, p. 198 (1902).

TYPE: Chaetospania inornata, Karsch.

Antennae with fourth and fifth segments, almost, or quite, as long as the third. Head smooth, tumid, sutures subobsolete. Pronotum subquadrate, gently convex anteriorly: build slender and body decidedly depressed. Elytra and wings perfectly developed, pubescent, the former not keeled. Legs rather short. Femora, especially anterior pair, thickened. Abdomen subparallel-sided in the &. Pygidium free. Forceps & depressed, remote.

Platylabia major, Dohrn, the type of Platylabia, having been shown to be a Labidurid, identical with Palex sparattoides, Borm., and Sphingolabis, Borm., being confined to its type S. furcifer, Borm., and two closely related non-Indian species, the genus Chaetospania includes the rest of the species formerly ranged in Platylabia, as well as the true Chaetospania, and

Ch. feae is returned to it from Sphingolabis.

pp. 125 and 126.

I have come to the decision that Platylabia gestroi, Dubr., is the female of Ph. thoracica, Dhorn, and that P. nigriceps, Kirby, is not specifically distinct, so that these three species, as recorded, now are fused under the name Chaetospania thoracica. Dohrn.

p. 125.

Table of Species.

1. Pygidium o bifid at apex.

2. Pygidium & with sides dilated. 1. foliata, Burr. .. 2. feae, Borm.

2. 2. Pygidium & parallel-sided ... 1.1. Pygidium & not bifid at the apex.

2. Pygidium & truncate at apex, with a minute median lobe .. 3. thoracica, Dohrn.

2. 2. Pygidium o triangular, apically acute ...

.. 4. stiletta, sp., n.

Chaestospania foliata, Burr.

Platylabia foliata, Burr, Stett. ent. Zeit., p. 338 (1911). Small: general colour red, and black: build slender:

Antennae brownish-yellow: (nine segments remain);

Head smooth, chocolate-brown: sutures indistinct;

Pronotum deep chocolate-brown: convex anteriorly and gently rounded posteriorly: prozona somewhat tumid.

Elytra and wings dark brown, pubescent, ample.

Legs yellow: femora thick.

Abdomen red: blackish near the base; hairy: Last dorsal segment of simple, smooth, quadrate.

Pygidium of depressed and dilated, widest in the middle, with angular convex sides: posteriorly rounded and deeply

emarginate, with two triangular sharp-pointed lobes.

Forceps with the branches remote and slender: strongly pubescent, gently arouate: the inner margin armed with two sharp teeth.

Long. corporis

5·5—7 mm. 1·75—2.

CEYLON: (1 &, Type, coll. Dohrn): Garnpola? from cankered barb of Heven brasiliensis, 23-xii-09 (Green, 1 & coll.

This species somewhat resembles the Australian C. brunneri but is a little smaller and weaker. The forceps are much less strongly arcuate, and instead of one very prominent tooth there are two short but sharp ones: the pygidium is bifid in both, but in P. brunneri it is nearly parallel-sided, whereas in this species the sides are distinctly convex and obtuse-angular.

It is described from a well-preserved and well-developed male in the Dohrn collection. Mr. Green has sent me a second male, also from Ceylon, which is smaller, and the forceps are

somewhat malformed, and the teeth obsolete.

Type in Dohrn collection.

Chaetospania stiletta, sp. n.

Size medium: general colour black, the body deep chestnut: abdomen and forceps hairy.

Antennae black, with 11 segments, the fourth about

equal to the third, long, elongate pyriform.

Head smooth, black, depressed, sutures indistinct.

Pronotum black, convex anteriorly, sides subparallel, gently rounded posteriorly: prozona somewhat tumid.

Elytra and wings black, finely punctulate, well-devel-

oped.

Legs yellowish; anterior femora, which are decidedly thickened, often black.

Abdomen subparallel-sided, deep reddish chestnut, hairy,

and finely punctulate.

Last dorsal segment of a rectangular, transverse, posterior margin truncate, darker in colour, somewhat tumid over the insertion of the forceps, with a pair of small, compressed tubercles in the middle.

Penultimate ventral segment & ample, quadrate, pos-

terior margin gently sinuate; 2 broadly rounded.

Pygidium prominent in both sexes: in o depressed, rather broad, triangular, apically, acute; in o depressed,

broad, quadrate, apically truncate.

Forceps with the branches very hairy, deep reddish chestnut, depressed, sub-trigonal, remote, elongate, and gently arouate towards the apex in both sexes; in the o there is a small, nearly obsolete laminate tooth in the basal third, and a strong, prominent, laminate tooth in the second third: in the ? the inner margin is laminate about the middle.

Southern India: Madura District, Shembaganur, 11 & &,

 $8 \circ (Astruc; coll. mihi).$

In coloration and general structure, this species resembles Ch. feae, but it is a size larger, the armature of the forceps is not quite the same, and the pygidium is acute, not bifid.

It is quite different from those of its congeners, which

have aculeate pygidia.

From Ch. aculeata, Borm., it differs in the straight forceps of the male and truncate pygidium of the ?; from the African Ch. paederina in the larger size, different colour, stouter build, broader and bigger pygidium and laminate, not spined, teeth of the forceps in the ?: from Ch. styligera, Burr, in the decidedly greater size, much broader, less spiniform pygidium, and laminate, not spiniform teeth of the forceps.

This species appears to be fairly constant, for the only variation, beyond trifling difference in size, in the several specimens examined, is in the coloration of the legs; in about

half the specimens, the anterior femora are black.

p. 127.

Sphingolabis holds good, including S. hawaiiensis, Borm. (Lombok and Hawaii), and S. villica, Burr. (S. Africa), as well as its type, S. furcifer (Sumatra).

But Chaetospania being revived, as already mentioned,

Sphingolabis feas is restored to its original genus.

Sphingolabis is very closely related to Chaetospania: differing only in its somewhat larger size, stouter build, less depressed body, broader head and more nearly square pronotum.

p 129.

The Chelisochinae are raised to the rank of a family, the Chelisochidae, being the third family of the Superfamily Eudermaptera: the remaining subfamilies given in this page remain in the family Forficulidae.

p. 136.

The specimen from Travancore recorded here as var. stratioticus, Rehn, of Chelisoches morio, Fab., proves to be the hitherto undescribed male of Adiathetus tenebrator, Kirby.

q.v. (post, p. 792).

p. 136.

Genus Prorrus, Burr.

Table of Species.

- 1. Pronotum longer than broad, and gently widened posteriorly (size medium).
- 2. Forceps rather slender with one sharp tooth, or not toothed: build slender.

.. 1. simulans, Stål.

- 2.2. Forceps depressed, broad and stout, with several teeth: build stronger

long: (smaller insects).

2. Pygidium short and broad, emarginate in the middle: forceps with one sharp tooth: last dorsal segment with no minute tubercles

tubercles ... 3. melanocephalus, Dohrn.
2.2. Pygidium hidden: last dorsal segment σ with a pair of minute tubercles on posterior

margin.

- 3. Build slender: forceps with several strong teeth: abdomen scarcely dilated: last dorsal segment of with 2 minute tubercles near together in middle of posterior margin: wings normally developed...
 - .. 4. delicatulus, sp. n.

3.3. Build stout: forceps with teeth almost or quite obsolete: abdomen moderately dilated: last dorsal segment with pair of minute tubercles not near together: wings normally abortive

.. 5. cunctator, sp. n.

p. 136.

Proreus delicatulus, sp. n.

Size small: build slender: general colour tawny and reddish. Antennae with 12—13 segments, yellowish brown, darker towards the apex; all slender and cylindrical, but third short, and fourth hardly longer than broad; fifth about as long as third, sixth longer.

Head depressed, smooth shining blackish brown, sutures

obsolete.

Pronotum about as broad as long, chocolate brown, shining, yellowish by translucence at the sides, which are parallel; posterior margin truncate, anterior convex.

Elytra smooth, ample, shining straw yellow, shading to.

darker at the margins;

Wings prominent, pale yellow, darker at the suture.

Legs yellow.

Abdomen shining chestnut red, darker at the sides, very

finely punctulate.

Last dorsal segment of rectangular, broader than long, truncate posteriorly, with a pair of minute sharp tubercles in the middle of the posterior margin; narrowed in the Q.

Penultimate ventral segment o broad, truncate, in ?

rounded, narrower.

Pygidium o scarcely visible, truncate; in 9 hidden.

Forceps with the branches in the 2 remote, short, depressed, broad straight, apically incurved, with one strong and one weak tooth on the inner margin.

Long. corporis 6 mm. 5.5 mm.
,, forcipis 1.5 1

CEYLON: Peradeniya, 9-vi-10 1 & (type), and 6 v-09 1 Q,

at light. (Green; c.m.).

This elegant little species recalls *P. melanocephalus* but is smaller and the build more slender and graceful: the forceps are more depressed, the coloration quite different, and the body much less hairy. The pair of minute tubercles in the middle of the posterior margin of the last dorsal segment are absent in that species; they are, however, present in *P. cunctator*, but the dilated abdomen of that species distinguishes it at once.

p. 136.

Proreus cunciator, sp. n.

Size small: build stout: general colour tawny and black. Antennae 14—15 segmentate: first segment black, stout, and long; third slender and cylindrical, not very long, fourth nearly as long as third, the rest a little longer, all slender and subcylindrical, the segments near the base tawny, each one darker at the apex, the rest all dark brown.

Head black, smooth, sutures not distinct, rather flattened.

occiput and posterior margin somewhat tumid.

Pronotum orange-red, a little longer than broad, parallel-sided, truncate anteriorly, posterior margin gently rounded.

Elytra short, scarcely longer than the pronotum, truncate posteriorly, orange-yellow, but an indistinct narrow fuscous band along the suture and costal margin.

Wings hidden.

Legs tawny.

Abdomen black, dilated, closely, and finely punctulate.

Last dorsal segment transverse, short; posterior margin truncate, rather thickened, with a short, conical, minute tubercle above on each side of the middle.

Penultimate ventral segment broadly rounded, with a

faint median emargination.

Pygidium not prominent, with a vertical face.

Forceps with the branches remote, depressed, not trigonal, stout, and strongly arcuate with two minute teeth about the middle on the inner margin.

Only cyclolabia form of & known— Q unknown.

Long. corporis

5·5—7 mm. 1·5—1·75.

INDIA: Assam-Bhutan frontier: Darrang District, N.E., 26-xii-10 (S.W. Kemp, 2 & in Indian Museum No. 8587/16—8591/16).

The appearance of this little species is very distinctive. It resembles *P. melanocephalus*, but is smaller, the coloration different; all the antennal segments are more slender, the 3—5th decidedly longer: the penultimate ventral segment of the male is entire in *P. melanocephalus*, and the last dorsal segment has not the pair of minute tubercles that are present in *P. cunctator*.

The armature of the forceps is much feebler in the species,

and the sculpture of the abdomen more dense and clear.

The macrolabious form of the male, and also of the female, are unknown. Possibly there may be a macropterous form, which would still more resemble *P. melanocephalus*, and in this case probably the pronotum would be gently widened posteriorly.

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pp. 146 and 147.

Adiathetus tenebrator, Kirby (redescribed).

*Size medium or large: colour blackish-brown:

Antennae with 15—16 segments, one or two ante-apical segments pale: fourth a little more than half as long as third: fifth about equal to third, the rest elongate, all cylindrical.

Head broad, depressed, tumid behind the eyes, sutures

distinct.

Pronotum subquadrate, slightly widened posteriorly, prozona tumid, with well-marked median suture and impression on each side: metazona flat.

Elytra perfectly smooth, dull brownish black.

Wings prominent, bright shining black tipped with orange at the suture.

Legs short, black: tarsi long, slender, strongly pubescent.

Abdomen subparallel, broader in the 3 than in the 2 in which it is gently narrowed apically, deep reddish black, lateral tubercles strong: punctulate.

Last dorsal segment ample, smooth: in the 3 square, tumid in the middle near the posterior margin, with a row of small compressed tubercles, a depressed area near the angles: in the 2 similarly, but more feebly, tuberculate.

Penultimate ventral segment broadly rounded in both

sexes.

Pygidium in the & short, subquadrate, tumid, depressed, and somewhat narrowed to the apex, which is abruptly truncate, similar in the 9 but more strongly narrowed, produced to a truncate rectangular lobe.

Forceps with the branches in the 3 strongly depressed, and dilated for half their length, strongly dentate on the inner margin of this portion: apical portion attenuated, with a nearly obsolete tooth, gently arcuate, the tips blunt and

incurved.

In the 9, the branches are feebly depressed elongate, nearly straight, and not dilated, with a sharp triangular tooth in the inner margin at the base itself, and a small tooth near the middle.

Long. corporis .. 20 mm. 18.5 mm. , forcipis .. 7 9.5.

INDIA: (B. M. Kirby's Type).
SOUTHERN INDIA: Travancore. 1 & (coll. Bolivar): Nilgiris, Karkur, 17-iv-10 (Leg. Green, 1 ? coll. mihi).

Madura District: near Shembaganur (Astruc, coll. wihi).

This species has long been known only from a single female in the British Museum labelled "India", named tenebator in

MS. by Westwood, and described by Kirby under that name in 1891.

I have received a nice fresh female from the Nilghiris, from Mr. Green, and now recognize its male in a fine specimen from Travancore, which I have had in my collection for several years, although it is the property of Señor Don Ignacio Bolivar to whom I have now returned it. I confused it at first with the var. stratioticus of Ch. morio, and as such recorded it in my book on Indian Earwigs (1910, p. 136); but an attentive examination reveals the difference in the structure of the feet, and I have no hesitation at all in referring it to tenebrator. It is identical in every respect except the purely sexual features: one distinctive point is the fact that the elytra are quite dull, but the wing-scales bright and shining.

The male forceps resemble those of a fine Ch morio, and recall the type which is characteristic of Forficula: the forceps

of the female are also very distinctive.

Father Astruc has sent me several specimens of both sexes from the neighbourhood of Shembaganur, in the Madura district: he found them under the bark of a freshly-felled tree in a plantation, in a fever-stricken district.

p. 149.

The species of Allodahlia have the membranous part of the wings deeply coloured. Those of A. scabriuscula are smoky black within the spurious vein (the long vein running parallel to the hinder edge of the wing), and hyaline beyond it.

In Burmese specimens of B. macropyga (the original A. ancylura) the wings are vertically divided into black and yellow, the black extending to the anal margin: in A. corracea they are vertically divided into smoky black and yellow. (Dohrn, in litt.).

159.

Anechura stoliczkae, Burr., sp. n.

Anechura stoliczkae, Burr.

Colour uniform dark-brown.

Antennae light brown: 11—12 segments, cylindrical, the third rather long, fourth hardly shorter than third.

Head smooth, bright.

Pronotum broader than long, truncate anteriorly, somewhat rounded posteriorly, at the sides straight, flat.

Prozonum swollen or tumid.

Elytra broad, flat, without keels.

Wings well developed.

Legs long and small, blackish.

Tarsi long and small, the first 1½ longer than the third, second a little widened.

Abdomen of almost parallel-sided, widened: Q widened, narrow posteriorly, punctulate, dark red-brown.

Last dorsal segment flat, broad, with a little hump on each angle, and with two bigger ones in the middle.

Penultimate ventral segment broadly rounded.

Pygidium σ short, obtuse, perpendicularly compressed at the end, with two humps on the upper portion, small in φ .

Forceps of remote, first curved a little on the outside, then turning round, slender, straight, slowly converging, with a strong tooth on the inner margin near the basis, in the opposite of the straight of

δ Q
Long. corporis 13.5 mm. 11 mm.
,, forcipis 9 4

NORTHERN INDIA: Upper Sutlej District, Bashahr, 2 o,

3 9 (Stoliczka, 1866, Mus., Vienna).

This species was brought from India by Stoliczka as long ago as 1866, but never described: the specimens, two males and three females, are in the Vienna Museum.

It is well characterized by its uniform dark-brown colour and simple arcuate forceps. Superficially, it somewhat recalls Forficula schlagintweiti, Burr.

p. 164.

Guanchia, Burr.

Guanchia, Burr, Gen. Ins. Derm., p. 86 (1911).

TYPE: G. cabrerae, Bolivar.

Differs only from Forficula in the abbreviated elytra, which are decidedly obliquely truncate, so that the sutural margin is much shorter than the costal.

Range: Canary Islands, Algeria and India.

This is not a very natural genus, although a convenient one: it was originally formed for a group of four species peculiar to the Canary Islands, to which was added one Algerian form.

We have to include now two Indian species.

Table of Species.

- Colour dull brown-black: forceps
 crested above; third and
 fourth antennal segments rather
 long
- 1.1. Colour shining black: forceps of not crested: third and fourth antennal segments relatively short
- 1. chirurga, sp. n.
- 2. medica, sp. n.

Guanchia medica, sp. n.

Antennae light brown, darker apically; segments all relatively short, especially third and fourth.

Head shining, smooth, blackish brown.

Pronotum decidedly transverse, subrectangular, gently rounded posteriorly; deep chestnut, with pale sides.

Elytra yellowish-brown, abbreviated and strongly obliquely truncate posteriorly.

Wings abortive. Legs vellowish.

Abdomen almost smooth, deep rich reddish black, brilliantly shining with a slight greenish lustre: last dorsal segment gently narrowed.

Pygidium minute, not protruding.

Forceps of with the branches contiguous, dilated through a third or half their length, this part with parallel sides, the inner margin denticulated; then strongly, but not brusquely, attenuate, and arcuate.

Long. corporis ... 7—9.5 mm.
,, forcipis ... 2—3.5

S. India: Madura District, Shembaganur (3 & coll. mihi, Astruc).

This species does not very closely resemble G. chirurga: it is a size smaller, and the brilliant sheen of the abdomen is very distinctive.

Guanchia chirurga, sp. n.

Size small: general colour dark chestnut:

Antennae greyish-brown, 12—13 segments, the fourth nearly as long as the third.

Head smooth and tumid, clear yellowish red, the mouth

parts darker.

Pronotum transverse, almost rectangular, the sides feebly convex: almost black, light brown at the sides: median suture faint: prozona feebly tumid.

Elytra short, obliquely truncate, the sutural margin being

much shorter than the costal: smooth, blackish brown.

Wings abortive.

Legs yellowish brown, the tarsi and claws rather long.

Abdomen dark brown or chestnut, darker at the base, shading to reddish at the apex: smooth; sides of sixth to eighth segments acute.

Last dorsal segment rectangular, transverse, posterior margin truncate, with a gently elevated, tumid, obtuse tubercle over the roots of the forceps.

Penultimate ventral segment broadly rounded.

Pygidium very small, obtuse.

Forceps elongate, arcuate, and slender: basal portion, about the first third of their length, dilated, the dilated portion ending in a right angle but not toothed: the dilated portion

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tion is strongly bent upwards, thus forming a laminate triangular crest.

Long. corporis .. 9 mm., forcipis .. 4—4·5.

Sikkim: Teesta Valley, Tunglu, 13-14,000 feet: 1-15. viii-

03. Tibet Expedition: 1905—172: 2 &.

This species has very characteristic appearance owing to the reflexion of the lamination of the forceps, which forms a sharp, strongly compressed, triangular crest in the basal third of the forceps.

It has a marked superficial resemblance to F. guancharia,

Heller, of the Canary Islands.

p. 170.

Forficula greeni, Burr.

Father Astrue found this species by no means rare in the Pulney Hills and at Shembaganur in the Madura District: it occurs generally singly, in the chinks of the bark of trees, and on dry shrubs. Father Astrue writes me that it takes up its quarters in the holes bored by the larvae of a small Longicorn beetle in the branches of orange-trees; in one such case he tound a pair with eight eggs: they also frequent the hollow stems of dried brambles.

Forficula beebei, sp. n.

Size small or medium: colour uniform deep shining black, with an oily lustre: the female is somewhat paler, rather of a deep brownish black.

Antennae with 12-13 greyish brown segments, the fourth

a little shorter than the third.

Head smooth, sutures not very distinct, eyes prominent.

Pronotum distinctly broader than long, truncate anteriorly, side parallel, gently rounded posteriorly.

Elytra perfect, ample, smooth.

Wings abbreviated. Legs blackish brown.

Abdomen moderately dilated beyond the middle: pliciform tubercles distinct: dorsal surface very finely punctulate in the σ , smooth in the \circ : ventral surface dark brown.

Last dorsal segment σ transverse, smooth, posterior margin irregular, with a depressed tumidity over the roots of the forceps: in the female similar, but narrower and simpler.

Penultimate ventral segment o broad, obtuse angled: 9

rounded.

Pygidium 3 tumid, with a short projecting transverse lobe, armed at each corner with a short sharp spine: in 9 tumid and obtuse.

Forceps with the branches in the σ feebly dilated at the base itself, gradually attenuated from the base, and strongly arcuate, finely denticulate about the middle, with a tumid, low tubercle on the upper surface at the angle of the dilated portion: in the $\mathfrak P$ simple contiguous.

Long. corporis .. 8 mm. 8 mm. , forcipis .. 2 1.5

E. HIMALAYAS: Darjiling District, Phallut, 12,000 feet, April 1910, 1 σ , 1 ϱ . (Ind. Mus. Nos. 5046 and 5047/16: C. W. Beebe).

Type in Indian Museum.

This curious species has somewhat the appearance of F. planicollis, Kirby, but may be at once distinguished by its intense black colour, with a strong oily lustre: the form of the pygidium and forceps of the male is very characteristic: it might be mistaken at first glance for the poorly developed variety of F. schlagintweiti, Burr, with which it agrees in the transverse pronotum and black colour, and the forceps are somewhat similar, but the lustre and pygidium distinguish it.

Its manner of occurrence is very interesting: Mr. C. W. Beebe was investigating the food of the pheasants which occur along the Darjiling-Sikkim and Nepalese frontier, at an altitude of from 10,000 to 13,000 feet: in April, thousands of a red and yellow lily occur, their three chambered seed-cases rising through the snow: these seem to form the more or less permanent resting-place of several species of insects, which afford an important item in the food of the Blood-Pheasants, Skylarks and Pipits which occur there.

Mr. Beebe gathered forty of these pods, at random, within a radius of a quarter of a mile: twenty-three of them contained a single earwig each, and four contained two earwigs, in three cases both were in the same partition, and one pod contained an earwig in one partition, and a Coccinella and a maggot in another, so that 70 % of the seed-cases contained one or more earwigs.

The material thus found consisted of this pair of F. beebei,

and a yellow-bellied variety of F. schlagintweiti, Burr.

p. 185.

Genus Cordax, Burr.

Table of Species.

1. Forceps contiguous at base.

2. Colour nearly black, elytra sometimes with small red spot:
(not shining) . . . 1. forcipatus; Haan.

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2.2. Colour lighter.

3. Elytra dull orange red, with narrow black bands

narrow black bands 2. armatus, Haan.
3.3. Elytra dull brown 3. ceylonicus, Motsch.

1.1. Forceps not contiguous at base:
(elytra shining black, with orange shoulder and foot)

4. politus, sp. n.

p. 185.

Cordax forcipatus, Haan.

Forficula (Opisthocosmia) forcipata, Haan (1842), p. 242, pl. 23, fig. 11.

Opisthocosmia forcipata, Borm (1900), p. 95 (nec Burr).

Opisthocosmia erroris, Burr (1904), p. 308.

General colour black, or very dark brown, varied with reddish: head tumid, with transverse suture distinct, eyes prominent: antennae red-brown or blackish, with long, thin, cylindrical segments: pronotum narrow, longer than broad, truncate anteriorly, rounded posteriorly, sides parallel: sides rather broadly reflexed, prozona tumid: elytra ample, smooth, dull black, sometimes with a small reddish spot at the shoulder: wings prominent, dull black, tipped with orange-red at the apex of the suture: legs long and slender, dark reddish brown: abdomen black, convex, moderately dilated about the middle: last dorsal segment of narrowed and sloping: forceps with the branches in the & narrowed contiguous at the base, cylindrical, (a) in the typical form straight, parallel and contiguous for about two-thirds their length, then armed with a strong sharp tooth on the upper surface, beyond which they are elliptically arcuate, meeting at a thickened tooth before the apex, or (b) by variety, only subparallel, the upper tooth and ante-apical tooth almost or entirely obsolete, and very feebly arcuate in the apical half.

É. HIMALAYAS: Kurseong, 5000 feet, September 09, 2 of (N. Annandale, Ind. Mus. No. 3045/16). Also occurs in Borneo,

Siam, and New Guinea.

The typical form of this species is easy to recognize on account of the peculiar forceps, but the only two Indian specimens, which I have seen are of a variety, in which the forceps have their characteristic armature and form so feebly developed that at first I failed to recognize them: the disappearance of the teeth, elongation of the enclosed ellipse and scarcely parallel basal portion quite alter the appearance of the creature: the small orange-red shoulder spot figured by Haan is more rarely present than absent: the colour varies from dull black to reddish black: the forceps are generally deep red, darkened at the teeth.

It probably occurs elsewhere in India, and very likely the typical form will be met with.

It is quite different in coloration and appearance from

C. armatus and from C. ceylonicus.

Cordax politus, sp. n.

Size medium; build slender: general colour shining reddish chestnut.

Antennae with basal segment black, the rest reddish, slen-

der and cylindrical.

Head dark wine-red, broad, from tumid and smooth, transverse sutures deep, occiput tumid.

Pronotum narrower than the head, decidedly longer than broad, parallel-sided, rectangular, deep reddish, chestnut.

Elytra shining deep brown, paler at the shoulders, which

are well rounded.

Wings prominent and long, black, with a large discoidal vellow spot.

Legs orange yellow; first and second tarsal segments about

equally long.

Abdomen deep red, blackish at the sides clothed with long fine hairs, smooth, very gently dilated to the 9th segment.

Last dorsal segment of decidedly narrower than the abdomen, smooth, almost square; posterior margin with a small conical tubercle at each outer angle, and a small tumid elevation over the roots of the forceps.

Penultimate ventral segment not very broadly rounded.

Pygidium prominent, almost parallel-sided, with an apical

triangular incision and small pointed lobes.

Forceps with the branches not contiguous at the base, very hairy, slender and elongate, deep red in colour, nearly straight, the tips gently incurved, armed on the inner margin with two or three small fine sharp teeth. Q unknown.

> Long. corporis 10 mm. forcipis

N. E. Burma: Chinese Frontier, Take-Pum Mountain, between 4000-5000 feet, November, 1910: "under stones near water." (C. W. Beebe; 1 &, Indian Museum, No. 8374/16).

This species somewhat resembles C. ceylonicus in general appearance; it may be distinguished by its oily lustre, and distinct, apically cleft pygidium.

It has a superficial resemblance to Kosmetor temora.

A single male is known, which is the Type, in the Indian Museum, Calcutta.

p. 187.

The genus Hypurgus, Burr, is now split, since H. simplex, Borm., and H. biroi, Burr (New Guinea), are not congeneric with H. humeralis, the type of Hypurgus. They differ in the long, and slender antennal segments, which are those of a true opisthocosmiid, while the antennae of Hupurgus humeralis are short, as in the Forficulinae.

A new genus has therefore been erected for H. simplex and

H. biroi: this is:-

Genus NARBERIA, Burr.

Narberia, Burr., Gen. Ins. Derm., p. 94, 1911.

p. 188.

Hypurgus humeralis, Kirby, var. vittatus, nov.

Differs from typical Cingalese specimens in being rather larger, and in having the shoulder spot lengthened into a longitudinal band: it is not structurally distinct, only a larger, rather finer race with different pattern of elytra.

N. BENGAL: Jalpaiguri District: Banarhat: "flying to light between rainstorms, 24-viii-08. I. H. Burkill." 2 of of

(Ind. Mus.).

p. 203.

Genus Lipodes, Burr.

I am now inclined to refer this genus to the Anechurinae: it is to be hoped that fresh material be shortly forthcoming to settle the very unsatisfactory question.

p. 205.

Forficula? cingalensis, Dohrn.

In a review of the monograph of the Indian Earwigs (Ent. Rundschau, xxvii, p. 175, 1910), Zacher discusses this species, having found Dohrn's type and a second male in the Berlin Museum. He considers it to be a Spongiphorid (in the old sense): the first segment of the posterior tarsi is unusally long, and the elytra have a sharp keel. Zacher suggests placing it provisionally in Erotesis, near to E. decipiens, but the presence of the keel on the elytra demands a new genus, if it is at all related to this group.

The following is a translation of Zacher's redescription of

this species:--

"Antennae with 16 segments: pronotum with broad, translucent borders: elytra keeled and sides of the abdomen acute and keeled: second tarsal segment simple, the first very long: forceps of the & broad at the bases, bowed, with two

800 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [December, 1911.]

small teeth before the apex, the points hooked and crossed: last dorsal segment with transverse median ridge."

From the account of the forceps, tarsi and elytra it appears that it is unlikely to be a Spongiphorid or a Labiid.

.57. References to Indian Mathematics in certain Mediæval Works.

By G. R. KAYE.

I.

In certain mediæval works on mathematics and kindred subjects there are curious references to Indian sources which have possibly led to misunderstandings as to the part played by Hindu scholars in the domain of mathematics.

Such references may be roughly divided into three classes: viz. (1) those that attribute to an Indian source a general system of some branch of mathematics; (2) those that refer particular problems to an Indian origin; and (3) those that term the modern system of arithmetical notation 'Indian.'

To the first class belong the Algoritmi de numero Indorum attributed to Muhammad b. Mūsā, the Liber abbaci of Leonardo Fibonacci, the Indian Arithmetic of Planudes, the Liber augmenti et diminutionis of a certain Abraham, etc.; of the second may be mentioned references (or supposed references) by Ibn Sina, Ibn el-Bennā and Jordanus; while of the third are statements by el-Qalasādi, el-Mahallī and others besides statements in the works of Planudes, and Leonard of Pisa already mentioned.

II.

A detailed examination of the particular instances cited brings to light some very curious facts and at the same time shows that the term 'Indian' was often incorrectly applied.

To those familiar with the old Hindu mathematical works a casual inspection of the works of Muhammad b. Mūsā, Maximus Planudes and Leonardo Fibonacci will convince them that the connection with India is very slight indeed, and if it were not for the fact that in each of the works referred to the term 'Indian' is used or supposed to be used no one would have suggested the connection.

Muhammad b. Mūsā el Chowārezmi lived in the first quarter of the ninth century of our era. He was one of the scholars that the Khālif el-Māmūn is said to have employed in measuring a degree of the meridian, the revision of Ptolemy's tables, etc. He is supposed to have been the first Arab writer on Algebra, and his treatise on that subject is well known

¹ For a fuller list of such references see the Appendix.

through Rosen's translation. The particular work of Muhammad b. Mūsā in question was published in Europe in 1857 by Prince Boncompagni who gives it the title Algoritmi de numero Indorum. The following list of contents of the work, however, shows pretty conclusively that it is not of Indian origin:-

- Principles of numeration. (1)
- (2) Addition.
- (3) Subtraction.
- (4) Division by two (Mediation).
- (5) Multiplication by two (Duplation).
- (6) Proof by 'nines.'
- (7) Division.
- (8) Multiplication of sexagesimal fractions.
- (9) Division of sexagesimal fractions.
- (10)Manner of writing sexagesimal fractions.
- (11) Addition of sexagesimal fractions.
- (13)Mediation with sexagesimal fractions.
- (14)Duplation with sexagesimal fractions.
- (15) Multiplication of ordinary fractions.

The chief points which differentiate this work from any early Hindu work are (1) the use of the proof by 'casting out the nines,' (2) the exposition of the sexagesimal notation. There are also some special points which lead us to doubt the Indian origin of this work. According to Woepcke the idea of sexagesimal fractions is expressly attributed to the Indians by Muhammad b. Mūsā. This is very strange since the Hindu mathematical works practically ignore the system, 2 but possibly Woepcke misunderstood his text as he did in other similar cases as will be seen later on. Secondly according to Rosen, Colebrooke, Woepcke, and others Muhammad b. Mūsā was also indebted to the Hindus for the substance of his algebra, but this is by no means true as was long ago conclusively proved by Rodet.8 Thirdly, although the work is supposed to deal with Indian numbers no Hindu symbols are actually employed.

Leonardo Fibonacci of Pisa having travelled in Egypt, Syria, Greece, Sicily and Provence and having learnt the 'Indian' method of arithmetic was convinced of its superiority to those commonly employed and "even to the algorithm and to the method of Pythagoras." He, therefore, wrote his Liber abbaci (A.D. 1202). In A.D. 1220 he also published a Practice of Geometry and (?) afterwards a treatise on square numbers.* The Liber abbaci contains the following chapters :-

¹ The Algebra of Muhammad b. Mūsū, F. Rosen, 1823.

The Hindu astronomers use the notation and Brahmagupta employs it in some quasi-astronomical examples in his algebra. He also refers to it in a supplement to his work, but in such a way as to exclude once for all the idea that the notation was of Indian origin.

⁸ Journal Asiatique, Tome ii, 7e Serie, 1878, pp. 5-98.

⁴ Libri, Histoire des Sciences Mathematiques en Italie, ii, 20.

- (1) The nine 'Indian' figures.
- (2) Multiplication of integers.
- (3) Addition of integers.
- (4) Subtraction.
- (5) Division.
- (6 and 7) Operations with fractions.
- (8 and 9) Buying and selling.
- (10) Partnership.
- (11) Mixture of metals, etc.
- (12) Progressions, etc.
- (13) Regula duorum falsorum, etc.
- (14) Surds, etc.
- (15) Geometry and Algebra (Indeterminates. etc.).

Beyond the somewhat cryptic statement that the Pythagorean methods and the algorithm are less accurate than the modi indorum, and the reference to the Indian figures (which are not Indian at all) there is little to connect this work with a Hindu origin. For example, Chapter XIV is largely based on the tenth book of Euclid, and the fifteenth Chapter is mostly drawn from the works of el-Karchī' and Muhammad b. Mūsā 2; Chapter XIII deals with the regula eleatayn or regula duorum falsorum which occurs in no known early Hindu work. The author had no direct knowledge of India.

Maximus Planudes (a.d. 1260-1330) was a Byzantine monk and the author of many works of which a commentary on Diophantus and a translation of the *De consolatione philosophae* of Boethius may be mentioned. He is supposed to have obtained his information about India from the merchants and missionaries of Byzantium. His 'Indian Arithmetic' is much of the same type as that of Muhammad b. Mūsā, whose work or some similar Arab work (for there are many of them) was possibly the source that Planudes drew upon. Historically the work of Planudes is perhaps the more important as it influenced European writers to a greater extent.

The topics dealt with are almost identical with those in the algoritmi of Muhammad b. Mūsā. An account is given of the nine symbols and the zero, with examples, and these symbols are used throughout the work, but they are Arabic not Hindu in form. The proof by nine is used and no Hindu writer earlier than Planudes employs this method. Detailed workings of illustrative examples are given and in this respect also Planudes differs from Hindu writers on mathematics. Here is an example of division which means that $856978 \div 24 = 35707 + \frac{10}{12}$.

¹ Woepeke, Notice sur le Fakhri, etc., p. 28.

Chasles, Aperçu, etc., p. 519.
 C. J. Gerhardt, Das Rechenbuch des Maximus Planudes, p.

804 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [December, 1911.

		13 2	16	2	1	3		10	$\left. \left. \left. \right \right. \right\}$ Remainders.
	8	5	6	9	7		8		Dividend.
	3	5	7	0	7				Quotient.
1	2	4							Divisor.

This may be compared with examples in Hindu works which are as different as such fundamental operations can well be. The Hindus, it may be added, in giving formal illustration of inverse operations seldom or never give examples that do not 'come out' exactly.

Planudes next exhibits operations in the sexagesimal notation. Here is an example which means that 14° 23′ multiplied by 8° 12′ gives 3 zōdia 28° 54′ 8″.

The following means that 3° 23' 54" divided by 2° 34'8 $24'' = 1^{\circ}$ 19' 14":—

		3 2	23 34	54 24	Dividend. Divisor.
Reduced dividend Reduced divisor			12234 9264	1	Quotient.
Difference Reduced difference Divisor	• • •	and the special section of the secti	2970 178200 9264	0 19	Quotient.
Difference Reduced difference	• •	,	218- 131040 9264	14	Quotient.

These examples are in themselves absolute and convincing proof of the non-Hindu origin of the work of Planudes.

Vol. VII, No. 11.] References to Indian Mathematics. [N.S.]

III.

Libri has published in Latin the text of a work with the following title:—

 Liber augmenti et diminutionis vocatus numeratio divinationis, ex eo quod sapientes Indi posuerunt, quem Abraham compilavit et secundum librum qui Indorum dictus est composuit

Of this Abraham practically nothing is known, but it has been supposed that he is the same as Ibrahim b. Ezra, a learned Jew, who lived in the twelfth century (1093-1168 A.D.). His work consists of some thirty-three algebraic problems which he solves in various ways. After the brief introductory remarks the author makes no reference to India. Of the thirty-three problems twenty-one are solved by the regula duorum falsorum and two by the method of inversion, and the rest by what may be termed ordinary methods.

The rule of two errors, or regula elchatayn,² or regula duorum falsorum, or method of the balance, or method of increase and decrease as it is variously called, occurs in no known early Hindu work.

The rule enables us to solve problems that can be expressed in the form

$$f(x) = ax + b = k.$$

For if we set k-f (a) = e_1 the 'first error' and k-f (β) = e_2 the 'second error' we have the rule

$$x = \frac{\beta e_1 - a e_2}{e_1 - e_2}$$

which is so largely employed by Abraham.

The following is a fairly typical example taken from the Liber augmenti et diminutionis expressed in modern notation?:—

$$f(x) = x - 4 - \frac{1}{4}(x - 4) - 5 - \frac{1}{4}\{x - 4 - \frac{1}{4}(x - 4) - 5\} = 10$$
First method: $f(16) = 3$ and $e_1 = 7$

$$f(32) = 12 \text{ and } e_2 = -2$$
whence $x = \frac{32 \cdot 7 + 2 \cdot 16}{7 + 2} = 25$

Second method:
$$x-4-\frac{1}{4}$$
 $(x-4)=\frac{3}{4}$ $x-3$
 $\frac{3}{4}$ $x-3-5=\frac{3}{4}$ $x-8$, $\frac{1}{4}$ $(\frac{3}{4}$ $x-8)=\frac{1}{8}$ $x+\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{8}$ $x-2$
 $\frac{4}{8}$ $x+\frac{1}{2\cdot 8}$ $x-6=10$, $\frac{4}{8}$ $x+\frac{1}{2\cdot 8}$ $x=16$

^{1 &#}x27;Rabbi ben Ezra, but it is very doubtful.

² Elkhata'ayn.

⁸ Libri, vol. i, pp. 310-311.

$$(\frac{8}{16} + \frac{1}{16}) x + \frac{7}{16}x = 16 + \frac{7}{9} \cdot 16 \text{ or}$$

 $x = 16 + \frac{7}{9} \cdot 16 = 28 \frac{4}{9}$

As stated above, the great majority of the problems are solved by the first of these methods, or regula duorum falsorum. There are, however, two examples of the method of 'inversion' as used by the Hindus. Here is one of these examples 2:-

$$x - \frac{x}{2} - 2 - \frac{1}{2}(x - \frac{x}{2} - 2) - 2 - \frac{1}{2}(x - \frac{x}{2} - 2)$$
$$- \frac{1}{2}(x - \frac{x}{2} - 2) - 2\} - 2 = 1$$
$$x = 2(2(2(1 + 2) + 2) + 2) = 36.$$

These two examples of the method of 'inversion' of course do not constitute a connection with India while, on the other hand, the occurrence of 21 examples of the regula duorum falsorum out of 33 problems does prove pretty conclusively that the work was not of Hindu origin.

Of Eastern writers who treat of the regula duorum |alsorum besides those already mentioned are Sind b. Ali, Sin'an b. el-Fath, Abu Kāmil Sogā b. Aslam and a great many others,

but no Hindu writer employs the method.4

Now Ibn el-Benna (Ahmed b. Muh. b. 'Amān el-Azdi) who died in Morocco in 1339 A.D., in explaining the regula duorum falsorum, states that it is described by other writers as the operation of the balance, and goes on to say, "As to the balance this procedure is a geometrical method (al-sinā 'at al hindasiyyat)." Woepcke translates hindasiyyat by 'Indian,' although he acknowledges that ordinarily it should be 'geometrical.' He says that there is absolutely nothing geometrical in the rule of the two false positions, and hence rejects the meaning 'geometrical' as absurd. If, however, we turn to the works of Qostā b. Luqā and Gābir el-Sābi we find that the rule is treated as essentially geometrical! The former, after giving an arithmetical explanation, goes on to say that he will elucidate it and prove it geometrically by the help of a figure; and el-Sābi gives the following demonstration 6:-

If the line ab is divided into three parts—ag, gd, db—then ab. gd + ag. bd = ad. bg.

¹ Lilavati, §§47-49, etc. ² Libri, vol. 1, p. 343,

⁵ See Suter's Die Mathematiker und Astronomen der Araber und Ihre

Werke, pp. 13, 43, 66, etc., etc.

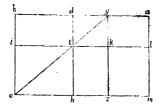
The nearest the Hindus get to this method is in their rule of 'supposition' (ishta karman) or 'single false position' after the old Egyptian fashion. See Cantor i, 618, and Colebrooke, p. 23.

5 Journal Asiatique, Mai-Juin 1863, p. 511.

⁶ H. Suter, Bibliotheca Mathematica 1907, p. 24.

For the rectangle bk = gh and the rectangle az = az, whence by adding we have bamzki = rectangle ah

or ab.
$$bi + mz$$
. $kz = ad$. dh
or ab. $gd + ag$. $bd = ad$. bg



By setting ag = a the first assumed number of the rule and $gd = e_1$ the first error, and further $ab = \beta$ and $bd = e_2$, we have

$$ad = \frac{a_1 e_2 + a_2 e_1}{e_1 + e_2}$$

This is more than sufficient warrant for rejecting Woepcke's translation and discarding the theory of Indian origin that his incorrect rendering implied.

IV.

It will have been noticed that in the Algoritmi of Muhammad b. Mūsā and the arithmetic of Planudes the 'proof by nine' is employed, but we find no trace of this method in any early Hindu work. Avicenna (980-1037 A.D.) is, however, said to attribute a connected rule to the Hindus. After having mentioned that the unit figures of square numbers are always 1, 4, 9, 6 or 5 he goes on to say—" As to the verification of the squares by the ----method it is always one, or four, or seven, or nine. Now unity corresponds to one or eight, to four. two or seven, to seven, four or five, and if it is nine there will be three, or six, or nine." The blank to be filled is the translation of the word hindasi. Woepcke gives 'Indian' but acknowledges that it should ordinarily be 'geometrical.' His reason for rejecting the term 'geometrical' is that the rule in question appears to have no connection with any geometrical method, and his reason for giving 'Indian' as the translation appears to be based on the assumption that the Arabs owed their mathematical knowledge to the Hindus. Now Woepcke is wrong on both points for, as likely as not, the rule was based on a geometrical demonstration and the Arabs owed very little

¹ I have already given one geometrical illustration of the rule (Journal Asiatic Socy., Bengal, 1907, p. 491) and it is easy enough to devise others.

of their mathematics to the Hindus. The rule means that on division by nine of any numbers the possible remainders are

for linear numbers .. 1, 8, 2, 7, 4, 5 3, 6, 9 , square ,, .. 1
$$\frac{2}{4}$$
 $\frac{7}{7}$ $\frac{3}{9}$

Not only is the translation of hindasi by 'Indian' here philologically wrong but the term 'Indian' cannot be applied to the rule in question as such a rule does not occur in any Hindu work prior to the time of Avicenna. Neither is there in any Hindu work the slightest indication that would lead one to expect to come across such a rule. The same termh indasi is applied to another rule obviously deduced from the former by Avicenna. This second rule may be expressed thus—

$$n^8 = +1 \mod 9$$

No such rule occurs in any Hindu work.

V.

"Ther was a kyng of Inde the quich heyth Algor and he made this craft . . . Algorisms, in quych we use teen figures of Inde." 1

The cases in which the term 'Indian' is applied to numerical symbols are not at first glance as easy to deal with since it appears incongruous to apply the term 'geometrical' to them. The term hindasi is, however, quite broad enough to include them as will be seen later on.

The symbols given by Maximus Planudes, el-Qalaṣādi, and other Western writers, together with some other forms for the sake of comparison, are exhibited in the accompanying table.

The table on opposite page shows that the sets of symbols under consideration (a, b, c, d, e) are not of Hindu but Arabic forms. Where they differ from the Arabic they generally resemble the apices of Boethius.

EL-QALASĀDI ['Ali b. Muh. b. Muh. b. 'Atī el-Qoreșī el-Bastī] lived in the fifteenth century, at Granada chiefly, and, in the words of his biographer, "joined to a profound knowledge and exemplary piety every quality of a pure soul." The titles of some forty-five of his works are known, and of these the following treat of mathematical subjects:—

(1) Lifting the veil which obscures the science of calculation;
(2) Explanation of the secrets which enclose the science of numbers; (3) Commentary on the Talchis of el-Bennā, etc.²

¹ Quoted by Smith and Karpinski.—The Hindu-Arabic Numerals, p. 11.

² A. Cherbonnean. Notice bibliographique sur Kalacadi, mathématicien arabe du XV e Siècle. Journal Asiatique, 1859, Tome XIV, 5 séric, p. 437 See also Suter. p. 180.

In the last-named work the author gives a circumstantial account of the invention of the modern numerical system by the Hindus.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
a	1	γ	μ	5	ω .	4	V	۸	9
ŀ	_	2,	2	عــر	9	6	7	8	9
c	l	7	2	عـو	ع		•	Э	ا و.
d	1	٢	M	۴	٥	4	V	۸	9
e	1	۲	٣	٤	8	7		٨	9
f	1	τ	Z	ھم	4	ما	1	8	9
9	i	۲	μ	4	ð	4	V	Λ	9
石		=	=	7	٢	y	7	5	3
	1	ζ	₹	8	Л	ξ	7	٢	2
j	१	२	ই	. 8	ų	Ę		7	ટ

a. Symbols used by Maximus Planudes (after Gerhardt).

b. El-Qalaşadi's figures. (Journal Asiatique, 1863, p. 58.) c. & d. Symbols given by Hosein b. Muh. el-Mahalli. (Journal Asiatique, 1863, p. 63.)

e. Ahmed b. Abū Bekr gives these in his book on 'Ancient alphabets, etc.'

f. The apices of Boethius taken from Friedlein's edition, p. 397. g. Ordinary Arabic figures.

h. These are early Hindu symbols of the 4th century A.D. taken from coins as in Rapson's British Museum Catalogue.

i. Hindu symbols of the 12th century A.D., Epigraphia Indica, i, 34.

j. Modern Hindu symbols [i.e. Devanagari].

"As to the Pythagoreans," he writes, "and these are the men of numbers, they admit six orders.... The first order goes from one to nine and is called the order of units. These

nine signs, called the signs of Gobar, are those which are employed very frequently in our Spanish province and in the country of Maghreb and Africa. Their origin is said to be as follows: A man of the nation of Indians took some fine powder and spread it on a table made of wood or some other substance or on any plane surface whatever and marked in it whatever he wanted to in the operations of multiplication or division or other operations. Then when he had finished the problem he put it into a cup-board until he wanted it again."

Hosein b. Muh. el-Mahalli gives practically the same account but leaves out the cup-board business, while Ahmed b. Abū Bekr gives the so-termed 'Indian' notations in a book entitled "The ancient Alphabets and Hieroglyphic characters explained; with an account of the Egyptian Priests, their classes, initiation, and sacrifices." This is hardly the sort of book in which we should expect to find an authoritative statement on Indian matters! The notations given are not Hindu at all but Arabic in form.

For other references to 'Indian' numbers see the Appendix.

VI.

It has been shown how the learned Woepcke fell into grievous error in rejecting the term 'geometrical' as not being appropriate to the problems to which the term hindasi had been applied. The same misconception perhaps occurred in the case of the numerical symbols which could not, according to popular ideas, be termed geometrical.

It is rather an extraordinary fact that Woepcke in interpreting Ibn El-Bannā's exposition of the regula duorum falsorum fell into exactly the same error as did el-Qalaṣādi when interpreting the same writer's numerical symbols. This can hardly be a mere coincidence and suggests an historical connection between the two classes of mistakes.

The hesitation of comparatively-speaking modern writers like el-Qalaṣādi to use the term 'geometrical' when referring to an arithmetical notation is easily understood; but it may be pointed out that the language of numbers is often essentially geometrical. The Greeks termed odd numbers gnomons and the roots of square numbers sides. Compound numbers not square were termed oblongs. Products of two numbers were plane and of three solid. We also have triangular, square, cubic and polygonal numbers, etc. It may

¹ I have since come across the following note by Woepcke.—"I would add," he says, "that I found in the Fihris! mention of two treatises on 'augmentation and diminution,' that is to say on the rule of two false positions, by Send ibn 'Ali and by Sinān Ibn Alfath, precisely the same who had written also treatises on Indian arithmetic.' Journal Asiatique, p. 514.

also be noted that the symbols of Boethius were given in his geometry and not in his arithmetic, and we may refer to the famous 'geometrical number' of Plato' and to the Hebrew gematria.

There is an instructive point about this last. Until quite recent!y scholars derived the word from the Greek grammateia simply because they could not conceive how the term 'geometrical' could be applied to the system. Here is a recent authoritative statement on the meaning of the term:

Gematria [Rabbinical Heb. gēmatriyā, a. Gr. γεω; ετρία Geometry. (The suggestion that it represents Gr. γραμγατεία is unfounded). A cabbalistic method of interpreting the Hebrew Scriptures by interchanging words whose letters have the same numerical value when added.

The Arabic words hindāz, hindāzat, hindasi, etc. mean 'a measure,' 'geometry,' 'architecture.' According to Whish ⁸ the term hindasi was often used by the Arabs to designate especially an alphabetic notation. According to the Burḥān-i-kāti (Calcutta 1818) the term "Hindisah signifies measure and figure. It is also applied to the numerals which are here written below the corresponding words:—"

Surely if it was intended that the word *hindisah* should be connected with the word 'Indian' the Hindu and not the Arabic forms would have here been given.

The words handasi, etc. are said to be derived from the Persian andāza which means 'a measure,' 'a quantity,' 'proportion.' This derivation is given in modern dictionaries, but it was also given by the great lexicographer Firozabādi (1329-1414 A.D.).

One of the most important links in the chain of evidence supporting the views given in this paper is the fact that the terms hindasi and hindi were actually confused by transcribers. For example in a Paris manuscript of a work by Sinān b. el-Fath the last word of the title is written el-hindasi while the Leyden manuscript of the Fihrist gives for the same title el-hindi.

Another fact worthy of note is that the terms hindi and hindasi were applied to other notations that never were em-

¹ Republic VIII 545-547.

² New English Dictionary.

Journal Asiatique, 1835, p. 117.
 Journal Asiatique, 1863, p. 490.

ployed by the Hindus in early days. Besides alphabetical notations mentioned by Whish we find the term *hindi* applied to the following system by Ahmed b. 'Abu Bekr and others.

هلث	دمن	حلش	بكو	ايةغ
	اء ا د اد	m, m, m	řřr	;;; t
طعنظ	حفض	زعز	و سخ	
9 9 9	 A A A	v	 4 7 7	

In the Fibrist a similar non-place value notation is given but with the dot underneath the figures. Neither of the systems is in any way Indian.

VII.

That such errors as those illustrated above have been supported by other incorrect statements of fact and faulty hypotheses is not surprising to the student of Indian history. Errors started long ago have been perpetrated. El-Mas'ūdī (c. 956 A.D.) was partly responsible. He tells us that "a congress of scholars.... invented the nine figures which form the Indian numerical system." He also said that a Hindu book served as the basis of the Almagest which in its turn was the foundation of Ptolemy's work. Bombelli stated that Diophantus often quotes from Indian authors. Such misrepresentations are so obviously wrong that they are readily detected; but Cossali, Sir W. Jones, Playfair, Taylor, Colebrooke, Rosen, Libri, Max Müller and others are no less culpable and often their statements are all the more dangerous by being somewhat less startlingly false.

¹ L. C. Karpinski. *Hindu numerals in the Firhist*. Bibliotheca Mathematica, 11, 2, 1911, p. 121.

² The whole passage is worth quoting as an illustration of the type of evidence that has been accepted by writers on oriental subjects:—

[&]quot;A congress of sages, gathered together by order of the King (Brahma the great!), composed the book Sindhind which signifies 'the age of the ages.' This book served as basis for the work of the Ardjabehd and of the Almagest, even as the Ardjabehd gave birth to the Arkend and the Almagest to the book of Ptolemy and later on to the astronomical tables. They invented also the nine figures which form the Indian numerical system. Brahma was the first to define the apogee of the sun, and he demonstrated that this star rests three million years in each sign of the zodiac and that it traverses the whole sphere in thirty-six million years. This king deposited in the house of gold the calculations relative to the origin of things and to primitive history which the Indians utilize to evaluate the ancient eras, a study which is more developed among them than any other people.... Brahma reigned 366 years.' Macoudi Les Praires d'Or p. 150f.

3 See Heath's Diophantus, p. 21 (Second Edition).

The Hindus themselves never claimed to have invented the system of notation. Indeed, according to them numeration is of divine origin and the invention of nine figures "with the dewice of places to make them suffice for all numbers" is ascribed to the beneficent Creator of the Universe in Bhāshara's $V\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ and in Krishna's commentary on the $V\bar{i}jaganita$. Neither did they claim originality in mathematics. Bhāskara often speaks with disdain of Hindu mathematicians and refers to certain 'ancient teachers' as authorities. If these ancient teachers had been Hindus he would most probably have mentioned them by name.

Finally, if the views indicated in this paper are not accepted then Aryabhata, Sridhara, Mahāvīra, Brahmagupta and Bhāskara must be no longer considered as representative Hindu mathematicians. Personally I prefer to accept the Hindu works as really representative and to reject the Western evidence where it does not agree with the orthodox Hindu

exposition.

¹ Colebrooke, p. 4.

APPENDIX.

The references to Indian sources already cited and other similar references are here roughly tabulated.

Author.	Work.	Notes.
I. Muh. b. Musa el-Chowārezmi (died c. 840 A.D.).	Algoritmi de Nu- mero Indorum.	This was published by Prince Boncompagni in 1857. It does not contain any Hindu numerals but gives a complete exposition of the sexagesimal notation, etc. His better known Algebra is not of Hindu origin. See Suter's Die Mathematiker und Astronomen der Araber und Ihre Werke, p. 10,
2. Sind b. 'Alī (died c. 864 A.D.).	••••	etc. Woepcke states that he wrote on 'Indian Arithmetic' the regula duorum falsorum, etc. (Journal Asiatique, 1863, p. 514).
3. Ja'qūb b. Isḥāq b. el-Ṣabbāh el- Kindi (died ca. 874 A.D.).	Indian Arithmetic	See Cantor's Vorlesungen i. 761, and Suter, 23. Woepcke J. Asiatique, 1863, p. 493.
4. Ahmed b. Abī Bekr b. Wahsih, (? ixth century A.D.).	The ancient Alphabets & Hieroglyphic characters explained; with an account of the Egyptian Priests, their classes, initiations and sacrifices.	The so-called Indian figures as exhibited above are given.
5. El-Jaʻqūbî	Kîtāb el-buldān	E. Wiedemann (Mitt. z. Gesch. d. Med. u. d. Nat. 1908, p. 375) states that this author mentions the Indian numbers.
6. 'Ali b. Ahmed, Abū'l-Qāsim, el- Antāki, el-Mugta- bā (died 987 a.D.).	The great treatise on the table relating to the Indian calculus.	See Woepcke (J. Asiatique, 1863, p. 493) and Suter, 63.
7. Abū 'Ali el- Hasan b. el-Hatam (ca. 965 to 1039 ▲.D.).	The principles of the Indian calcu- lus.	See Woepcke, p. 489; Suter, p. 91. He wrote commentaries on Euclid; on magic squares; a commentary on Diophantus, and a great number of other works.
8. Avicenna (El- Ḥosein b. 'Abdal- lah b. el-Ḥosein b. 'Alī Abū 'Ali,	Treatise on Arithmetic.	The work is a sort of para- phrase of the arithmetic of Nicomachus. There is no real reference to an Indian origin

Author.	Work.	Notes.
		** * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
el-Seich el-Ra'is, Ibn Sinā), (born 980 A.D.). 9. 'Ali b. Ahmed, Abūl-Ḥasan, el Nasawī (died ca. 1030 A.D.).	The satisfactory treatise on Indian arithmetic. [El-mogni 'fi'lhisab el-hindi].	but Woepeke wrongly translates fi'l-tharik al hindasi by 'la méthode indienne' (Journal Asiatique, 1863, p. 502). Woepeke (J. Asiatique, 1863, pp. 492-500) gives the introduction to and an analysis of this work. The author refers to many Arab writers but to no Hindus. The so-called
10. Abū'l-Ḥosein b.	Les Prairies d'Or	Indian symbols are Arabic in form. There are seven chapters on sexagesimal operations, etc., etc. See Suter, 96. See the translation by C. B.
Hosein b. 'Ali el- Mas'ūdī (xth cen- tury A.D.). 11. Abraham (full	Liber augmenti et	de Maynard and P. de Cour- teille, 1861, p. 150. The perti- nent passage is given above. The whole text is given by
name and date doubtful).	diminutionis, etc.	Libri (Histoire des Sciences Mathematiques en Italie, i, 304). At the beginning it is stated that the work is "Secundum sapientes Indorum, etc." There is no further reference to India and the work deals principally with the regular duorum falsorum
12. A h m e d b. 'Omar el-Karābī- sī [? ixth century A.D.).	Indian Arithmetic	Suter, 65; Woepcke, 459; Fihrist, 282.
	In lian Arithmetic	Woepcke, 54; Suter, 66; Fihrist, 281. He also wrote on the Regula duorum falsorum, summation of cubes, etc.
14. 'Abderrahmān b. 'Omar, Abū'l- Ḥosein, el-Şūfī (903-986 A.D.).	••••	Suter, 62; Fihrist, 284; El- Bīrunī, 335 and 358.
15. 'Omar b. Ibrā- hīm el-Chaijāmī (born ca. 1045 A.D.).	L'Algèbre d'Omar Alkhayyāmi by F. Woepcke.	this subject we take no notice of those among the algebraists who think differently. The
16. Leonardo Fibonacci of Pisa (xiith & xiiith centuries A.D.).	Liber Abbaci	Indians think differently.' Surely for 'Indians' we should read 'geometers,' p. 13. See notes above and also Libri's Histoire, etc., ii, 287. Woepcke's Introduction de l'Arithmétique indienne en Occi
7 Tohn of Tile	m	dent.

See Chasles' Aperçu, etc.,

p. 464.

17. John of Holywood [Sacro Bosco], died 1244 A.D.

Author.	Work.	Notes.
18. Jordanus Saxo or Jordanus Ne- morarius (xiiith century).	Geometry	The work commences— Haec algorismus. ars presens dicitur, in qua. Talibus Indorum fruimur bis quinque figuris. Jordanus ascribes the following formula for the side of a regular polygon to India. $ \frac{2}{S_n} = \frac{18r^2}{n(n-1)/2+3} $
19. Ahmed b. Muh. b. 'Otmān el-Azdi, A b ū ' l - 'A b b ās (lbn El - Bennā), 1258-1340 A.D.	Talchīs a'māl el- hisāb. (Epitome of arithmetical operations).	but it occurs in no Indian work. See G. Eneström's note in Bibliotheca Mathematica 1908-9, p. 143. Here again Woepcke forces the translation of hindasi giving 'Indian' on the ground that the term 'geometrical' cannot apply to the regula duorum falsorum. Woepcke, as is shown above, was absolately wrong. Hankel appears to repeat Woepcke's mistake. Suter, 162.
 Abu Naşr Muh. 'Abdallah el- Qawadzani. 	A treatise on the Indian calculus.	See Woepcke, J. Asiatique, 1863, p. 494.
21. Maximus Planudes (1260-133) A.D.).	Arithmetic according to the Hindus.	See the notes above where the work is discussed in detail Arabic forms of the numeral are used throughout. A large portion of the work is devoted to the sexagesimal notation.
 'Alī b. Muh. b. 'Ali el-Qorēsī el-Basti (el-Qalaṣā-dī), xvth century A.D. 'Abdallah b. 	Commentary on the Talchie of Ibn el-Benna.	He gives a circumstantial account of the invention of the nine figures by the Indians See note above and also Woepcko, 58, and Suter, 180.
Chalīl b. Jūsuf, (iemāl ed-din el- Māridīni (Sibt el- Māridīni) (died 1407 A.D.).	truth about computing with	employ these letters (the abjad)
24. El-Ḥosein lo. Muh. el-Maḥallī (died 1756 A.D.	Commentary on the arithmetic of 'Abdelqādir b. 'Alī el-Sachāwi (ca 1000 A.D.).	

DECEMBER, 1911.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 6th December, 1911, at 9-15 P.M.

MAHĀMAHOPĀDHYĀYA HARAPRASAD SHĀSTRI, C.I.E., M.A., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Maulavi Abdul Wali, Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. H. S. Bion, Prof. Nilmani Chakravarti, Mr. D. Hooper, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Mr. G. R. Kaye, Mr. W. Kirkpatrick, Lt.-Col. D. C. Phillott, Dr. P. C. Ray, Captain R. B. Seymour Sewell, I.M.S., Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyābhusaṇa, Dr. J. Ph. Vogel.

Visitors:—Rev. A. Ameye, S.J., Babu Rasick Lal Datta, Babu Tincoury De, Babu Jatindranath Rakshit, Babu Hemendrakumar Sen, Mr. A. C. Tunstalb, Rev. M. Vermeire, S.J., and others.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Two hundred and thirty-five presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Capt. M. Mackelvie, I.M.S., and Major W. M. Coldstream, R.E., have expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The General Secretary also reported the death of Mr. W. Irvine, an Honorary Fellow of the Society; and Mr. A. C. Sen, an Ordinary Member of the Society.

Read the following obituary notice of the death of Mr. W. Irvine:—

Mr. William Irvine, an Honorary Fellow of the Society, was born July 5, 1840, and died November 7, 1911. Educated at St. Anne's School, Brixton, and King's College, London, he passed the Indian Civil Service examination in 1862. In 1863 he arrived in India and was posted to what was then called the North-West Provinces. He became a member of the Society in 1866. Being on the theatre of the decline and fall of the Mogul Empire, his attention was early directed to the history of that interesting epoch, and his first paper in the Journal was on the Bangash Nawabs of Farrukhabad (1713—1857). He also made a valuable collection of Persian and Urdu manuscripts dealing with the period after the death of Aurangzeb. He retired from the service in 1888. After his retirement he continued to show his interest in the Society by contributing articles to the Journal. In 1894 he began his

"History of the later Moguls" of which the last instalment was published in 1908, but the author unfortunately did not lived to complete the series. In 1892 his attention was drawn to the "Storia do Mogor" by Niccolao Manucci, and several years after his famous edition of this work was published in the Indian Text Series. This work will always form a lasting monument to his scholarly patience and a mine of wealth for the student of later Mogul times.

Mr. William Irvine was elected an Honorary Fellow of

the Society in 1908.

The following gentleman was balloted for as an Ordinary Member :-

· Z. R. Zahid Suhrawardy, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, M.A., LL.B., Calcutta, proposed by the Hon. Dr. Abdulla al-Mamun Suhrawardy, seconded by Lieut, Colonel D. C. Phillott.

The following papers were read:-

A brief Bibliography of Hindu Mathematics.—By G. R. KAYE.

This paper has been published in the Journal for November 1912.

2. Father A. Monserrate's Mongolicae Legationis Commentarius.—By REV. H. HOSTEN, S.J.

In 1908, Rev. W. K. Firminger discovered in St. Paul's Cathedral Library, Calcutta, a MS. by Father Anthony Monserrate, s.J., entitled Mongolicae Legationis Commentarius. He announced his discovery to the Calcutta dailies, and Mr. W. Corfield wrote a short note in Bengal: Past and Present, 1906, No. 2, p. 184.

When, in 1909, the MS. was lent me through Rev. Fr. A. Van de Mergel, s.J., I could recognize in it without difficulty an account of the first Jesuit Mission to Akbar (1580-1583) under Blessed Rudolph Aquaviva, Father Monserrate having been one of Rudolph's two companions. Eventually, I deciphered the three-centuries-old writing, with the result that the

MS. (nearly 300 pages) is now ready for the press.

The importance of the MS. will be readily understood, if we reflect that it constitutes the earliest account of Northern India by a European since the days of Vasco de Gama. only does it give us a detailed history of the first Christian Mission in North India, but more than 100 pages are consecrated to a subject which the Muhammadan historians dismiss in two or three pages, the history of Akbar's campaign against Kābul (February 1581 to beginning of 1582). Monserrate accompanied Akbar on that expedition as tutor to his second son, Prince Murâd, and, but for Akbar's wish that he should remain in safety at Jalālābād, he might have entered Kābul with the Emperor's victorious troops. The value of the work is further enhanced by the earliest known map of Northern India. It exhibits the longitude and latitude of all places passed through by M. on his way to and fro between Goa.—Surat.—Agra and Kābul. In fact, it is a marvel of accuracy for the time. More than a century later, the geography of Northern India had not reached the same degree of perfection.

By means of the library marks on the MS. it was possible to trace its history in Calcutta during last century. Before 1818 the book was in Fort William College (Established: 1800). In 1836 it was transferred to the Metcalfe Hall Collection, or Calcutta Public Library. When, in 1903, the Calcutta Public Library had become the Imperial Library, the MS.—through an evident oversight of the librarian—was given away to the St. Paul's Cathedral Library (Anglican), Calcutta. Only one press-mark "IP46," the oldest in date, remains unexplained. I suspect that it belongs to one of the former Jesuit houses of Goa: but it is impossible to establish this in India, since the Goa of to-day possesses scarcely any relics of the once valuable libraries of its convents. Through what strange vicissitudes the MS. made its way to Calcutta it is impossible to say.

The early history of the MS. is extremely interesting Father Monserrate tells us in his preface that, when he was about to proceed to Akbar's Court at Fathpur Sikri, the Provincial of Goa, Ruy Vicente, appointed him historian of the Mission, and night after night, "for full two years and a half, I committed to writing the events of that day. In this daily labour of a chronicler. I have described the various particulars which my travels and circumstances brought under my notice. These are: rivers, towns, countries, the customs and manners of peoples, temples, religions; the leaningssimulated leanings, it is true—which the king, when we had come to his Court, manifested towards the religion of Christ, as also the kindness which, from mere self-interest, he affected towards Rodolf, to whom had been confided this weighty Mission, and towards his companions; again, Rodolf's zeal, consummate prudence and remarkable erudition, and our disputations with the Agarenes [Muhammadans, descendants of Agar]; next, the Chabul war, which was marked by great tenacity of purpose and superior statesmanship on the part of Zelaldin [Jalal-ud-din Akbar], and ended successfully by the flight of Hachim [his brother]; finally, the joyful ovations that signalized this triumph."

On his return to Goa in September (?) 1582, Monserrate brought with him voluminous notes "taken down on the tramp." His friends found them so interesting that they urged him to cast them into a connected account.

From another source we learn that between September and November 26, 1582, Monserrate made a summary of the chief topics regarding Akbar, a kind of character-sketch. This Relacam do Equebar reached Europe and was utilized by Peruschi, de Guzman, du Jarric, Purchas and Bartoli. photographic facsimile having come into my hands, I presented to the Society, at our meeting of September last, the Portuguese text and an English translation of that document.

Monserrate spent the next six years (1582-1588) as a Missionary at or near Goa. All the time he was actively at work on his papers. The rough copy of his Commentarius was far advanced, when Father Peter Martins, the Provincial of Goa, sent him, an elderly man already, to Abyssinia. After touching at Mascat, he and his companion, Father Peter Paez, were intercepted by the Arabs near "Dofar," and sent to Eynan, where "King" Omar kept them in honourable confinement. He ordered even that Monserrate's books and writings should be restored and—a not unprecedented case of enlightenment in Eastern despots—granted him four months' leisure to correct his writings and add to them what was still wanting. Accordingly, Monserrate finished his Commentary at Evnan, on the feast of St. Anthony of Padua, June 13, 1590, after which he was marched off to Senaa. His MSS. were again robbed on the way; but on October 21, 1590, the Turkish "Viceroy" of Senaa had them restored to him. "Consequently, I returned to my writings, corrected and enlarged them, and freed them from erasures." On December 11, 1590, his neat copy was finished, and on January 7, 1591 he wrote his preface, dedicating his work to the Very Rev. Father Claudius Aquaviva, the uncle of his companion at Fathpur, Blessed Rudolph, the now glorious martyr of Cuncolim.

He wrote: "Whether the work is written in a manner worthy of the Society and will afford any utility to the reader, I must leave to your judgment. For my part, unless self-love blinds and deceives me, I am of opinion that it will not prove useless to the students of Geography and Antiquity, especially to those of Ours who apply themselves to the Classics, when

they come across historical matters concerning India.

"In these writings—I say it without presumption—I have endeavoured, for the sake of the Professors of our schools, to correct, clear up and conciliate, as modestly and temperately as possible, not a few passages of the Geographers and

Historians who deal with matters Indian or Arabian.

"Would to God that my labour redound to the glory of God's name and to the advancement of knowledge, which we must not only ardently wish, but strive after with all our might. If, in your wisdom, you judge that this double object has been attained in my two-fold study, I believe that it will amply commend itself to you. Farewell."

It is this very MS., written in prison at Senaa in 1590,

which Calcutta may now glory to possess.

Monserrate and Paes' captivity lasted six years and a half. Ransomed in August 1596, they wrote from Goa to Rome in December 1596, announcing their deliverance, and Akbar was not a little wroth at the conduct of the Arabs, when Fr. Jerome Xavier read to him a letter of Monserrate, detailing what they had suffered.

There can be little doubt that Monserrate brought back to India this precious MS., or rather, by this time, he had collected sufficient materials for four distinct volumes. at the end of his captivity in Arabia, or after his return to Goa-since he refers to events of 1595, which he could hardly have learnt in Arabia—he wrote in his preface that the small appendix he had composed on the Natural History of India and the customs of the "ancient aborigines and indigenes" had now become a book. "I have divided the work into two books: this, the former one, is an account of the first Mission to the King of the Mongols; the latter contains, by way of appendix and scholium to the former, what appertains to the Geography and Natural History of India intra Gangem, the customs of the ancient aborigines and the present-day natives. In two other books, which I have added to the two former ones, I describe, on the same plan, in the first, my departure for Ethiopia; in the second, the Geography and Natural History of Arabia."

We can account in some manner for the fact that Monserrate's appendix—which, by the way, is not found in the Calcutta MS.—grew gradually to the size of a volume. A large proportion of the pages of our MS.—let us call it Bk. I—was cancelled or bracketed by Monserrate between 1591 and 1600, the year of his death. The conclusion I have come to is that he must have considered that the thread of the narrative of the Mission was too often broken by his descriptions of cities, tombs and ruined temples, his excursions into the history of the past, or his considerations on Indian manners and customs. He wished to do away with these hors-d'œuvre, as he considered them, and worked them out with other materials in Bk. II, the "appendix." Unfortunately, Bk. II remains to be discovered.

None of these 4 volumes was known to our bibliographers, or to the biographers of Monserrate and Bl. Rudolph Aquaviva. No other copy of the Calcutta MS. is known to exist in Europe. The MS. is, therefore, all the more valuable. For, in case Bk. II is lost, much of its contents is still preserved in our Bk. I. Whatever Monserrate may have thought of his hors d'œuvre, they are of paramount interest to the historian and the antiquarian, and detract little, if at all, from the continuity of the story.

It is a remarkable fact that Col. Wilford, a distinguished orientalist, who died at Benares in 1822, should have possessed Monserrate's autograph copy of Bk. II. This is evident from the Latin quotations not found in the Calcutta MS. which he adduces, as also from the difference of pagination in both MSS. in the case of a similar passage. The search which I made in our Calcutta libraries for Bk. II has remained without result. It might be suggested that the book is still in the possession of Col. Wilford's descendants. If it could be found, the discovery would be scarcely inferior in importance to that of Bk. I.

There is another mystery which I cannot solve. The Calcutta MS. was studied—in the beginning of last century, I believe—by an Englishman, a geographer, a scholar, a man with all the tastes of a Wilford, yet, I cannot determine

by whom.

Numerous pencil-marks—all from the same hand, it would seem—show that the anonymous commentator was acquainted with English, Latin, Portuguese and the Persian character. He refers to "additions to Bk. II" and to a long Latin-Portuguese account by Fr. A. Botelho written in 1670, of which I know one copy among the Marsden MSS. of the British Museum, and another in the possession of the Society of Jesus.

Who was this anonymous annotator? Wilford, Marsden, or some one else? If Wilford, how is it that he never quotes the Calcutta MS., though it would have been of the greatest assistance to him in his geographical researches? And is it likely that he would have presented the MS. to the Fort William College without the companion-volume, several years before his death? As for Marsden, besides the fact that he never resided in British India, he presented his valuable oriental library to King's College, London, in 1835. He made an exception only in the case of 10 volumes of MSS., spoils from the Jesuit Archives of Goa or Malacca (?), which he donated to the British Museum. Finally, if the notes were made by some one else, how was he acquainted with Wilford's Bk. II and Father Botelho's report?

I shall not analyse more fully the contents of the MS. In such a variety of curious information, it is difficult to make a choice. I may, however, say—since the subject crops up so often—that no revelations are to be expected about John

Philip de Bourbon, and Akbar's Christian wife.

My reason for publishing the Latin text in the first place is to preserve the original from further mishaps. I do not for the moment contemplate undertaking a translation. Besides, the work of the translator and annotator will be one of no ordinary difficulty. Several passages almost defy translation, for the simple reason that we are too little acquainted with the condition of many things in Monserrate's time. As a case in

point, I refer to the descriptions of temples, tombs and ruins. I believe that a translation will do justice to the text only when a host of scholars will have focussed, on the original, the light of research.

• Monserrate's Mongolicae Legationis Commentarius will form the first volume of a series of Jesuit papers on Mogor, Tibet, Bengal and Burma, which I intend editing under the

patronage of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

I take this opportunity to thank the Council of our Society for having sanctioned my application for Rs. 600 to be spent on procuring from Europe materials for further research, photographic facsimiles of the letters of the Jesuit Missionaries in Mogor, Tibet, Bengal and Burma during the period 1580-1803. It is but just that I should thank most heartily our Society for the enlightened encouragement and patronage which it means to extend to studies which will be of equal interest to the antiquarian and the historian, religious or profane.

This paper will be published in full in the Memoirs.

- 3. Critical Examination of the Transcript of the Atapura Inscription.—By PANDIT MOHANLAL VISHUNLAL PANDIA.
- 4. Kitab-ul-Wafayat of Ibn-ul-Khatib: a biographical notice of eminent men from the beginning of Islam to A.H. 80°. Edited by MAULAVI HIDAYET HUSAIN.
- 5. Contributions from the Chemical Laboratory, Presidency College. Allylammonium Nitrite.—By Prafulla Chandra Ray and Rasik Lal Datta.
- 6. Contributions from the Chemical Laboratory, Presidency College. Preliminary note on Sodiumdiacetamide.—By JITENDRA NATH RAKSHIT. Communicated by Dr. P. C. RAY.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the *Journal*.

7. Freshwater Sting-Rays of the Ganges.—By B. L. Chaudher.

This paper has been published in the Journal for September.

- 8. Abhiseka, or Hindu Coronation.—By Манаманорарнуауа Накарказар Shastri.
- 9. Coronation of a Hindu King in Ancient India.—By PANDIT MOHANLAL VISHUNLAL PANDIA.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 13th December, 1911, at 9-30 p.m.

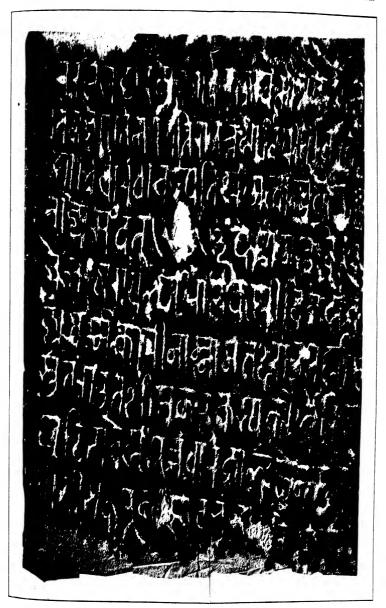
MAJOR L. ROGERS, C.I.E., I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Major E. O. Thurston, I.M.S., Dr. K. K. Chatterji and Captain J. D. Sandes, I.M.S.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

- I. To nominate a Medical Secretary for the approval of the Council in the place of Major Megaw, I.M.S., who is going on leave. Proposed by Major Rogers, and seconded by Major Thurston, that Captain Sandes, I.M.S., be nominated as Medical Secretary, and carried unanimously.
 - II. The following Clinical Cases were shown:-
- 1. Captain Sandes showed for Lt.-Col. Calvert cases of spastic diplegia with bilateral athetosis and tuboparalysis.
- 2. Dr. K. K. Chatterji showed (1) A calculus he had successfully removed from the ureter of a patient with a urinary sinus. (2) X'ray photographs illustrating a case of painful heel due to spicule of bone growing from the under surface of the oscalcis.
 - 3. Dr. K. K. Chatterji also showed--
- 1. A case of Hydrocele which had been treated by the method described in his paper.
- 2. A case of surface wound after operation for elephantiasis treated by sundur red ointment 8 per cent, with rapid healing.
 - III. The following paper was read:
- 1. A new method of operation for the radical cure of Hydrocele.—By Dr. K. K. Chatterji, F.R.C.S.I., and discussed by Major Thurston and Major Rogers.



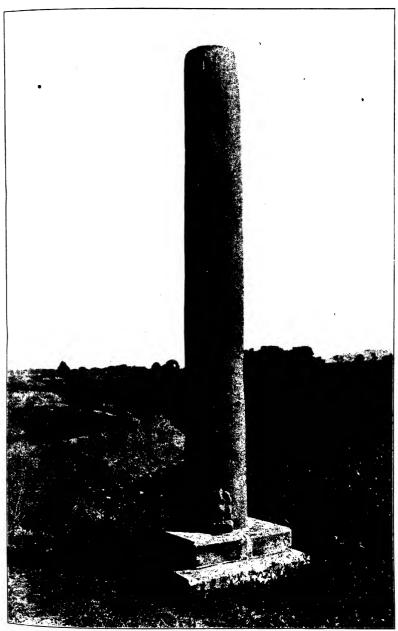


Photo Engraved & printed at the Offices of the Survey of India Calcutta, 1919.

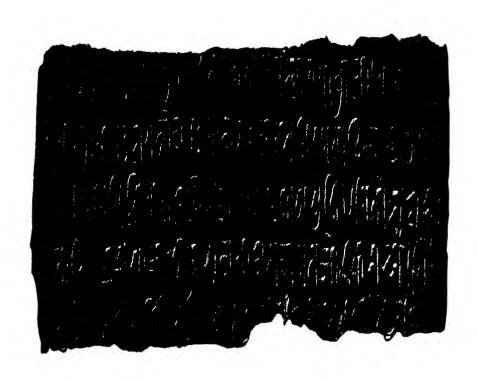
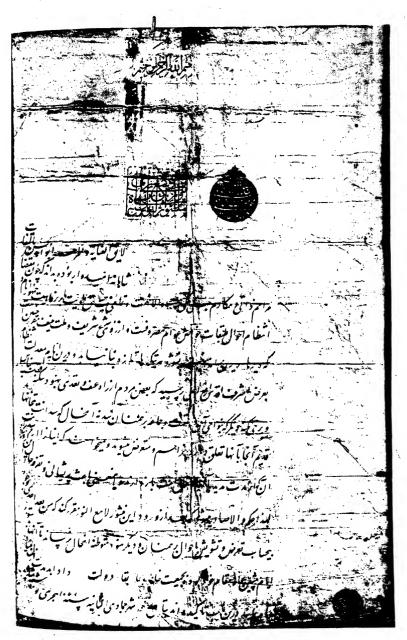


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THE MACHLISHAHR GRANT OF HARIS-CHANDRA.

V. E. 1257,-11, 21-25.



A FIRMAN OF EMPEROR AURANGZEB.

(From a block prepared for the Proprietor and Editor of "The Comrade.")



BUST OF ALEXANDER CSOMA de KÖRÖS. Presented by the Hungarian Academy of Sciences.

TIBETAN STUDIES:

BEING

A REPRINT OF THE ARTICLES CONTRIBUTED TO THE JOURNAL OF THE ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL

BY

ALEXANDER CSOMA DE KÖRÖS.

EDITED BY

E. DENISON ROSS.

CALCUTTA:

PRINTED AT THE BAPTIST MISSION PRESS.

1912.

EDITOR'S PREFACE.

VERY few words seem to be required by way of introduction to the present reprint.

The pioneer work of Csoma de Körös in the field of Tibetan research has a permanent value for scholars; and on the occasion of the 125th anniversary of Csoma's birth, I suggested to the Asiatic Society of Bengal that it would be a fitting tribute to the great Hungarian traveller and scholar, if they were to publish in a collected form all the articles he had contributed to their Journal. These articles are scattered over seven different volumes of the Journal. Some of the earliest volumes are very difficult to procure, and time has played sad havoc with the existing copies owing to the bad paper on which they were printed. Of the fourteen articles contained in this collection, Nos. I to XIII were published during the author's lifetime, and they have consequently been reprinted exactly as they were sent to Press by Csoma de Körös. No. XIV, however, did not appear till many years after his death-and although, as we learn from an editorial note, the proofs were corrected by a Lama, the Tibetan text in the original article is full of misprints and misspellings. I have, therefore, revised the text, and in this connection I have to acknowledge with grateful thanks the assistance received from Lama Lobzang Mingyur of the Darjeeling High School, who possesses a knowledge of Tibetan orthography rare among Lamas of to-day.

E. DENISON Ross.

¹ Csoma de Körös was born in Transylvania, April 1784, and died in Darjeeling, April 1842.

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No. I. Geographical Notice of Tibet.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. I, p. 122 (1832).]

The vast mountainous tract of country between about 73° and 98° east longitude from London, and 27° and 38° north latitude, may be called by the general name of "Tibet," since the Tibetan language is understood everywhere from Beltistan (or Little Tibet) down to the frontier of China, although there be several corrupt dialects of it, and the inhabitants of these countries, in general, have the same manners and customs, are addicted to the same faith (to Buddhism), and have the same religious books written or printed in characters common to all the different provinces.

The native name of Tibet is "Pot," as it is pronounced commonly; "Bod," more properly. It denotes both the nation, and the country: for distinction's sake the country is expressed by "Bod-yul" (Bod-land), a male native "Bod-pa," and a female one "Bod-mo." The Indian name for Tibet is Bhot.

The natives of Tibet apply the name Pot, or Bod, especially to the middle Tibet, or to the two provinces "U" [Ü] and "Tsang" (Dvus-Qtsang [Dbus-gtsang] pronounced U-tsáng), the capitals of which are Lhassa and Zhikátsé [Shigatse]. Hence a native of those two provinces is called by them especially Pot pa. The eastern part of Tibet is called "Kham" or "K'ham-yul," also "Great Tibet." The north-western part towards Ladak is called "Nári." Bhutan is called by several names by the Tibetans; as, "Lhopato," "Lho-mon-k'ha-zhi," "Lho-bruk-pé-yul," or simply "Lho" (the south). According to these divisions, the inhabitants of Tibet are distinguished thus: "Pot-pa" (or U-tsáng-pa) means a native of middle Tibet; "K'hampa" (or K'ham-ba), one of eastern Tibet; "Naripa," one of western Tibet; and "Lho-pa," a native of Bhutan.

The whole of Tibet occupies high ground, and lies among snowy mountains. Hence it is called in Tibetan books by several poetical names, expressive of snow, ice, or frozen snow, cold, and high elevation. The highest ground in Tibet is in $N \dot{a}ri$, especially the peak called Tise or Tese, in Tibetan, and Kailasa in Sanskrit, about 80° E. longitude, and 34° North latitude. The sources of the Indus, Sutlej, Gogra, and the Brahmaputra rivers are in $N \bar{a}ri$ ($M \bar{n} ahris$). There are several large lakes also. Tibetan writers, in describing the situation of

Tibet, have likened Nári to a lake or watering pond; U-tsang to

four channels; and K'ham-yul to a field.

Tibet is bounded on the north by the countries of the Turks and Mongols, whom the Tibetan call Hor, and Sok-po (Hor-sok). On the east by China (Gyanak in Tib.). On the south by India (Gyagar in Tib.). On the west by India, Cashmir, Afganistan, Tazik yul, and Turkistan.

The hill people of India, who dwell next to the Tibetans, are called by them by the general name "Mon," their country Mon-yul, a man Mon-pa or simply Mon, a female Mon-mo.

From the first range of the Himalaya mountains on the Indian side to the plains of Tartary, the Tibetans count six chains of mountains running in a north-western and southeastern direction, when viewed from Kangri in Nári (a lofty mountain running from south-west to north-west), whence the ground commences to take on one side a north-western and on the other side a south-eastern inclination. In the spacious valley, which is between the third and fourth range of the before mentioned mountains, is the great road of communication between Ladak and U-tsang. The principal countries or districts in this direction, from north-west, are as follows: Beltistan or Little Tibet, Ladak, Teshigang, Gár or Gáro (the lower and upper), Troshot, Tsáng, U. Bhrigang. It is here likewise that the two principal rivers, the Sengé k'há-bab and the Tsánpo, take their course; that by Ladak to the north-west, and may be taken for the principal branch of the Indus: this to the south-east, and forms afterwards the Brahmaputra.

The countries on the Indian side that lie next to Tibet, commencing from Cashmir, are as follows: "K'ha-ch'hé-yul'" (or K'ha-ch'hul), Cashmir; Varan, Mandé. Palder or Chatirgerh, Pángé, Gár-zha or Lahul, Nyungti or Kullu; K'huna or Knaor, and Bésahr; Kyonam and Shák'hok, or Garhwal and Kamaon; Dsumlang; Gorkha-yul; Pal-yul (Bal-yul) or Népal; Lhopato

or Bhutan; Ashong or Asam.

The names of the countries or districts in Tibet that lie next to India, commencing from Cashmir, are as follows: Himbab (near to Cashmir), Purik, Zanskar, Spiti, Gugé, Purang,

Kyirong, Lhoprák, Myánam, Lach'hi, Mon-ts'ho-sna.

Beyond the fourth range of the Himalaya mountains, or in the next valley to the north of Ladak, there are the following districts, counting them eastward: Nubra, Rudok, Tso-tso, Bombá, Chang-ts'há k'há, Chang-ra greng.

The three great divisions of Tibet are:

1. Tibet Proper, or *U-tsáng*. 2. K'ham-yul, or the eastern part of Tibet, and 3. Nári, or the north-western part of Tibet.

1. Tibet Proper or *U-tsáng*. It is that part of Tibet which lies next to the north of Asam, Bhutan, and Nepal, that is called by this name. This is the most considerable part of Tibet. The inhabitants of this division are the most industrious, skilful,

and polite of all the Tibetan races. The number of the inhabitants in these two provinces is said to be about one hundred and thirty thousand families. Lhassa is the capital of the province U. as also of the whole of Tibet. From the seventh till the tenth century it has been the residence of the kings of Tibet. Now it is the first place for commerce in Tibet, the seat of government, and the residence of the Chinese Ambans (or ministers). There are several religious establishments. Near Lhassa is Potala, the residence of the great Lámá (styled Gyelvá-rin-po-ch'hé), the head of the sect called Géluk-pa or Geldanpa. Other remarkable places, in the province U, are: Yambu-Lhá-gáng, a fort or castle built in the fourth century, by Thothori, a king. It has been the residence of the ancient kings. It contains some antiquities, and plastic images of the ancient kings. It is a few days' journey to the south from Lhassa. Sam-yé (Bsam-yas) a royal residence and a large monastery, one day's journey from Lhassa, built in the eighth century by K'hri srong-déhu-tsan, a celebrated king. There are deposited several ancient books taken from India. In the province of U, among other forts or castles, Dé-ch'hén-song and Haspori are the most considerable. In the province of Tsang, the following ones are of some repute: Chang-nam-ring, Chang-Lha-tsé, Phun-ts'hok-ling, and Gyang-tse.

2. K'ham-yul (K'hams-yul), called also Pot-ch'hen, or Great Tibet, consists of the eastern part of Tibet, and is bounded by China on the east. There are several small principalities; as, K'ham-bo, Gábá, Li-thang, Dégé (or Der-ghé), Brag-yak, Depma, Go-jo, Gya-mo-rong, Jang-sa tam, Amdo, K'hyamdo, etc. The people of these parts differ very much from the rest of the Tibetans in their stature, features, dress, customs, and in the manner of speaking the Tibetan language. They are very robust, passionate, void of artifice or cunning, not fond of ornaments on their dress. In K'ham-yul, those called Pon or Bon, holding still the ancient religion of Tibet, are very numerous. They have also their literature, religious order, several monasteries, and kill several animals, great and small cattle, for

sacrifice: they have many superstitious rites.

3. The north-western part of Tibet, from Tsang to Ladak, is called Nári. This part is of very great extent, but the number of inhabitants is inconsiderable, not exceeding fifty thousand families together with Ladak and Beltistan. There have been several small principalities formerly in Nári, as, Gugé, Puráng, Kangri; but all these belong now to the great Lámá at Lhassa, and are governed by K'harpons (commanders of forts) sent from Lhassa. There are also in Nári very extensive deserts. The inhabitants dwells in tents, made of hair cloth; exercise a pastoral life, without any agriculture. Their number is said to amount to ten thousand families, and they all are under the sGar-pon or chief officer residing at sGár or sGáro.

who is sent from U-tsang or Lhassa, and generally remains there

for three years.

Gugé, part of Nári, lying to the north of Garhwal and Kamaon, consists of two valleys, inhabited by somewhat more than two thousand families. The principal places are Tsaprang and Tholing, not far from each other. The first is the residence of the commanding officer called the Kh'arpon of Tsaprang, and the second is a large monastery and the seat of a Lámá styled the K'hanpo of Tholing. He resides during the summer at Teshigang, another large monastery, a few days' journey to the north from Tholing. These two places (Tsaprang and Tholing) have been the residence of the princes that have reigned there from the 10th till the end of the 17th century.

Ladak, formerly called *Mar-yul*, still has its own prince, but he must accommodate himself to the political views of the Chinese. *Zanskar*, *Purik*, *Nubra*, form part of the Ladak principality. In the whole of Ladak the number of the inhabitants does not exceed twenty thousand families. Nearly the half of them are Mohammedans, mostly of the Shia persuasion. *Lé* (slé) is the capital of Ladak, the residence of the prince, and the emporium of a considerable trade with Turkistan, Lhassa, and the Panjab countries. It is about 15 to 20 days' journey from Cashmír to the east, and nearly under the same latitude,

(i.e. 34° north lat.).

Little Tibet or Beltistan (Belti-yul, in Tibetan) is the most north-western part of Tibet. There are several chiefs. The chief residing at Kárdo is the most powerful among them; those of Kyeré and Kuru, with some others, depend on the former. The chief of Shigar holds sometimes with the prince of Ladak and sometimes with the chief of Kárdo. The chiefs of Minaro, Hasora etc. are the heads of some predatory tribes. In the several defiles to the south, in the neighbourhood of Beltistan, there live some predatory tribes, among whom the most notorious are the Dardu people. These barbarous tribes are either of Afghan or Hindu origin. The inhabitants of Beltistan are Mahomedans of the Shia persuasion. They speak a dialect of the Tibetan language, but have nothing of the Tibetan literature. They keep some books or fragments in Persian. correspondence from Ladak with the chiefs of those parts, is carried on in Persian, as also with Cashmir. The people of Beltistan are very unhappy on account of their chiefs having continual quarrels with each other, or with the prince of Ladak. The climate is warm. In the lower part of Beltistan, snow never falls. The soil is good. There are several kinds of grain; they have two crops. There are likewise several sorts of excellent fruits; as, of apples, pears, peaches, plums, figs, grapes, mulberries, etc., etc. There is a great want of salt and wool in those parts; formerly there existed a commercial route from Cashmir to Yarkand through Beltistan (of 30 days' journey); but that

country being in an unsettled state, the Cashmírian merchants afterwards preferred that through Lé, in Ladak, although it is

very circuitous.

The people of Lhopáto or Bhutan, on account of their language, religion, and political connexion, belong to Tibet. But in their customs and manners they have adopted much from the Indians. They are more clean in their dresses and houses than the other Tibetan races. The men are of a martial spirit, like those of K'ham-yul, with whom they are said to have much resemblance in their character. The people of Bhutan speak a corrupt dialect of the Tibetan language; but there are several religious establishments, a great many books, and some religious persons are well acquainted with the Tibetan language and literature. They are Buddhists of the sect called in Tibet Brukpa (vulg. Dukpa). They adopted this kind of Buddhism in the 17th century of our era, when Nák-Váng Nam-gyel, a Lámá of great respectability, leaving Tsáng in middle Tibet, established himself in Bhutan. There are counted now about forty thousand families. The whole province of Bhutan consists of four districts or valleys, which if counted from east to west, are as follows: Thet-yul, Thim-yul, Patro or Pato, and the middle district. The principal place is Teshi-ch'hos-dsong.

LAKES.—There are four principal lakes in Tibet. The Ma-pham yu-ts'ho (Mansarovara), in Nári, is the most considerable, of a circumference of about one and a half day's journey. In U-tsáng, the Yárbrokyu-ts'ho, Mu-le-sgrum ts'ho, and Namts'ho ch'hukmo are likewise of great extent. There are many others of inferior rank or less compass; as, that of Lá-nág to the west of Ma-p'ham. From Rúdok (near Ladak) to the east or

south-east, there are many salt lakes.

MEDICINAL OR MINERAL WATERS.—Between U and Ts and there are some hot springs, used in curing cutaneous diseases and the gout. But such hot springs are numerous in the mountains lying east from the Ma-p ham lake; especially at one place there is a hole out of which continually issues vapor, and at certain intervals, hot water is ejected with great noise to the height of 12 feet.

GLACIERS.—The summits of many of the Tibetan mountains remain through the whole year covered with snow. But there are especially four glaciers or mountains covered with ice or

frozen snow; as, Tisé, Hano, Shámpo, and Pulé.

MINES.—Mines are rarely excavated in Tibet. In the northern part of Nári, and in Gugé, some gold dust is gathered, as also in Zanskar and Beltistan it is washed from the river. If they knew how to work mines, they might find in many places gold, copper, iron, and lead.

Petrifactions are found at many places in Tibet, especially in Nári. On the 2nd and 3rd range of the Himalaya mountains, there are several sorts of them. Sálgráms and shells are found

most frequently, in many places. All such petrifactions are denominated in Tibetan, according to the resemblance they have to anything; as, sheep-eye, sheep-horn, sheep-brain, swine-head, bird-leg, cow-tongue, stone-trumpet, etc. They are not objects of reverence in Tibet, neither of curiosity. Some of them, after being burnt and reduced to powder, are used as medicaments in certain diseases.

In the whole of Tibet, there is, in general, a deficiency of wood, both for fuel and for building, or timber, especially in Nari and U-tsang. In Bhutan and Beltistan there are many sorts of fruit trees. In K'ham-yul there are some woods and forests. In the western part of Ladak and in Beltistan some vines are cultivated. In middle Tibet and Ladak the mountains are in general naked, destitute of herb, grass, and every vegetable. In the valleys, where the fields can be watered or irrigated, several kinds of corn are produced, especially wheat, barley, buck-wheat, millet, peas, and some others. In Nári and in the northern deserts of Tibet, there grow several kinds of medical herbs and plants, and there are likewise good pastures; but there are in the deserts no fields for producing corn, and what they want they purchase from those who inhabit the southern parts of Nari, and give them in exchange yaks, sheep, wool, woollen cloth, salt, borax, etc.

Rice is nowhere cultivated in Tibet. There are some kinds of pulse; as peas, bean, and lentils. There is no great variety of esculent plants. They have some turnips, cabbages, carrots, onions, garlies, and a few others; but for potherbs they use in general such greens as grow wild. In the western part of Ladak, in Purik, there is a certain plant (with bushy stalks), called Prangos, which is a good remedy against the rot in sheep,

if given for food for a certain time, in autumn.

The daily food of the Tibetans consists, in general, of gruel, or thick pottage prepared from the meal of parched barley (satu). several kinds of flesh, bread, sour milk, curds, potherbs, and of tea prepared in a particular manner in a churn, with butter, salt,

and with some milk, or without this last ingredient

The origin of the Tibetans is referred in their fabulous history to the union of an ape with a she-demon. Some derive them from India; some from China; others from the Mongols, and others from the Turks. Nothing can be certainly said in this respect. They have an original language, which has little affinity to that of any of the nations mentioned. It is probable that the royal family who reigned in middle Tibet from about 250 years before Jesus Christ till the 10th century, was derived from India, from the Lichabyi race, and it is certain that their religion and literature is of Indian origin. The Tibetans are ignorant of their origin. They distinguish now five sorts of people or races (or nations) among themselves; as 1 K'hamba, one dwelling in K'hambul. 2 Pot-pa, one inhabiting in U-tsang.

3. Brok-pa or Hor-pa, one living in the deserts to the northwest of Lhassa. 4. Nári-pa, one of Nári, Ladak and Beltistan, and 5. Lho-pa, one of Bhutan. All of whom have yet other subdivisions. They differ much from each other in their stature, character, dress, and in the accent with which they pronounce the Tibetan language. But they can all understand each other. They all agree (with the exception of the Mahommedans in Ladak and Beltistan) in having the same religion, whose records are in the same language and character.

No. II. Translation of a Tibetan Fragment.

With remarks by H. H. WILSON, Secy.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. I, p. 269 (1832).

(Read, July 4th.)

In the 9th volume of the Gyut class of the Kahgyur occurs the original of a Tibetan fragment, which created in the beginning of the last century a lively sensation amongst the learned men of Europe, and the history of which furnishes an amusing instance of the vanity of literary pretensions, and of the patience and pain with which men of talent and erudition have imposed upon themselves and upon the world.

In the end of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century, the Russians in their incursions into Siberia came upon various deserted temples and monasteries, in some of which considerable collections of books were deposited. These were in general destroyed or mutilated by the ignorant rapacity of the soldiery, but fragments of them were preserved, and found their way as

curiosities to Europe.

Amongst these, some loose leaves, supposed to have been obtained at the ruins of Ablaikit, a monastery near the source of the Irtish, were presented to the emperor Peter the Great. Literature being then at a low ebb in Russia, no attempt was made to decypher these fragments, and they were sent by the Czar to the French Academy, whose sittings he had attended when at Paris, and who deservedly enjoyed the reputation of being the most learned body in Europe. In 1723, the Abbé de Bignon, on the part of the Academy, communicated to the Czar the result of their labour, apprising him, that the fragments sent were portions of a work in the Tibetan language, and sending a translation of one page made by the Abbé Fourmont with the help of a Latin and Tibetan Dictionary in the Royal Library. The letter was published in the Transactions of the Academy of St. Petersburgh, and the text and translation reprinted by Bayer in his Museum Sinicum. Müller in his Commentatio de Scriptis Tanguticis in Siberia repertis-Petropoli, 1747, oriticised Fourmont's translation, and gave a new one of the first lines, prepared with the double aid of a Tangutan priest, or Gelong, who rendered it into Mongol, and a Mongol student of the Imperial College, who interpreted that version to Müller.

The original was also engraved in the Transactions of the Leipsic Academy. It was reprinted with corrections and additions and a new translation by Giorgi in his Alphabetum Tibetanum, and has recently been made the subject of animadversion by Mons. Remusat, in his Recherches sur les Langues Tartares. previous performances M. Remusat thus speaks: avoit d'abord admiré la profonde erudition qui avoit permis à Fourmont de reconnoître seulement la langue dans laquelle le volume étoit écrit : on a vanté depuis celle de Giorgi, qui avoit rectifié et le texte et la traduction. Je ne sais comment on peut traduire ou corriger un texte qu'on n'est pas même capable de lire. Il n'y avoit rien d'admirer dans tout cela : interprètes et commentateurs, panégyristes et critiques tous étoient presque également hors d'état, je ne dis pas d'entendre une ligne, mais d'épeler une syllabe du passage sur lequel ils disertoient.

The consequence was what might have been expected, and the attempts at translation and correction were most ludicrously erroneous. The greatest liberties possible were taken with the words, and letters were inserted or omitted at pleasure, in order to make them approximate to those terms which appeared most like them in the imperfect dictionaries possessed by the translators. After all, the translation was not only unlike the original, but unlike common sense; and as was remarked of Fourmont's version by the President de Brosses, the Latin was quite as unintelligible as the Tangutan. The following specimens of the first lines of the different versions will show that the remark was applicable to all as well as to the first.

Fourmont's Translation.

"Attrită fortitudine quisnam brevis equus frigoris vita destruatur (pro) spiritu inest putredo. Contritus oratne? hoc est irrisio omnes vident: orat avis contrita? morbida? non seit (non potest amplius) os aperire legis (ratiocinationis)."

This must have puzzled the Czar and his academy quite as much as the original; and as Remusat observes, the Latin was of marvellous use to the translator. Fourmont would not have dared to write a syllable of such nonsense in French.

The manner in which Fourmont was led to such a strange misrepresentation of the original is explained by Mons. Remusat, from whom we may take one instance as a specimen—Thus of the word brevis equus. The MS., M. Remusat says, was read by Fourmont Teru pá té (Mr. Csoma has ch'hud-pá-des). He found in the Dictionary chung-pá signifying 'short.' and r-ta meaning 'a horse,' and these being the nearest approach to the syllables before him, he adopted as essentially the same, and rendered them accordingly.

Müller's Translation.

"Firma conscientiâ mediante omnia parvi pendendo in principio vivente cuicumque auxilium oritur inde. Quibus consummatis futurum quid nemini notum est. Religio tota namque religionis explicatio. Magnates autem intellectu (suo) ea non comprehendunt."

The matter has not been made much more distinct by the

aid of the Tangutan Monk and Mongolian student.

Giorgi's Translation.

"Misericordia recreat et a cruciatibus absolvit Summus protector viventes omnes qui eam adoratoribus suis revelat. Benefici largitoris virtutem sciunt omnes, sed orationis invocationisque vim et efficaciam exponere et aperire nesciunt: nomen ea exprimit arcanum illius legis quæ lex est spirituum, &c.'

How far either of these expresses the sense of the opening of this fragment, may now be duly appreciated by the perusal of the following.

Mr. Csoma's Translation.

[Chom dan dás] "addressed his mind to meditation upon the affairs of animate existences. The ignorant do not perceive the moral signification of moral things."

Not a word of this appears in the preceding versions. Its accuracy speaks for itself; but in confirmation of its correctness, the original Tibetan, both in Tibetan and Roman characters, is here reprinted, as well as the translation of the entire passage. Those to whom the prosecution of the subject is of interest may readily estimate for themselves the superiority of Mr. Csoma's labours, by comparing them at length with the text and translations of Fourmont and Giorgi in the Alphabetum Tibetanum.

Before proceeding to the new translation, however, a few

further remarks upon the subject of the old are necessary.

The Society is apprised of the general character of the contents of the Gyut portion of the Kahgyur, to which our original belongs, and will not be surprised, therefore, to learn that a great part of the extract consists of Mantras, or mystical formulæ, or invocations, and these not in Tibetan but in Sanscrit. Now, neither of the former translators had any knowledge of Sanscrit, nor was aware that these passages were in that language. Fourment considered them to be Tibetan, as well as the rest, and very deliberately translated the Sanscrit words with the help of his Tibetan Dictionary. As he could not find the exact words, however, he was content to take those most like them; and at the expense of a few letters omitted or inserted, he contrived equivalents for the mantras equally satisfactory with those

he had devised for the other sentences of his text. Thus he converts the Mantra Nama Sámanta Buddhánam, Sámantanugate, varaja, Dhermannirgata, Mahá Mahá Swáhá, into Na-ma Sam-tam Pou-tra Nan-hi-tsí cha-ya r-pa sa-n-ha, which he translates, "Ægrotavit (restitit morbo) Samtam poutra per annum dum hujus mundi evanesceret, &c." The same importing, as far as such things admit of being translated, "Salutation to the chief Buddhas. Obtainer of pre-eminence; best born;

who proceeded from virtue. Great, great adoration."

Giorgi is more upon his guard, and discovers that the mantras are not in ordinary Tibetan. He has no suspicion however of their real character, and calls them magical expressions. He prints them therefore without any translation, but nevertheless pretends to explain their purpose in his notes on the text, in which he assembles a crude mass of extravagancies from Hebrew, Chaldaic, Coptic, and Syriac, and compares these Tibetan characters to the mystic numbers and letters of the ancient Scythians and Egyptians, and of some of the early Sectarians and Heretics of the Christian Church. This display of unprofitable erudition is in fact only a shelter for his ignorance, and he knows no more about the matter than did Pourmont, without having the merit of his blundering simplicity.

We shall now proceed to the translation.

Translation of Extract from the T. or 9th volume r, Gyut class of the Kah-gyur, the 337—339 leaves.

Ignorant men do not know that all these (doctrines) have been thus explained by *Chom dan dás* (the Supreme), the knower of all and possessor of all, who in remote ages, through compassion for all living beings, addressed his mind to meditation upon the affairs of animate existences (a Stanza). The ignorant do not perceive the moral signification of moral things. It has been distinctly taught (by *Buddha*), that the essential principle of morality is the non-entity of matter.

The performer of mystic rites must always dwell upon that

idea, and discharge his duty accordingly.

This was a gradual and comprehensive explanation of the means by which noxious things (or evil spirits) may be appeased.

Then CHARBA DORJE (S. VAJRAPARI) and other Dor, je bearers (Vajradharas, bearers of thunderbolts), Kuntu-zangpo (Samanta Bhadba), and other Chang chub sempáe (Bodhisatwas) having adored chom dán das, Nam Par-snang-deat (the Bhagaván or Lord Vairochana), being desirous to express each in his own mastra or invocation, his mystic praise, and how they judged in this great circle the source of infinite mercy, of the

pure way of access to the root of all things, requested permission from CHOM DAN DAS.

Then CHOM DAN DAS having granted them permission, and bestowed his benediction upon them, thus spake, "Illustrious children accordingly as you judge of the root of things (the first moral being), utter your mystic sentences for the purification of all animate existence."

Then the Bodhisatwa Kuntu Zangpo, being immersed in that profound meditation, which is called the region of the ornamental (characteristic) of a Buddha, uttered this mystical sentence

(mantra) of irresistible efficacy.

Nama Sámanta Buddhánam, &c. Glory to the exalted Buddhas! obtainer of eminence; best born; who proceedest from virtue—great, great adoration. This is the mantra of Kuntu Zangpo.

[For the rest of this, and for the Sanscrit of the other mantras, see the passages in Italics in the Tibetan extract in Roman character.

Then the Bodhisatwa Champa (Maitreya) after being immersed in the profound meditation called "the universally manifested beneficence," thus uttered his own radical prayer (vija mantra), Nama Sámánta Buddhánám, &c. Glory to the exalted Buddhas; conqueror of the invincible; possessor of the fame of all purity—adoration. This is the prayer of Champa.

Then the Bodhisatwa Nam-khe nying Po (Akasa Gerbha) being immersed in the profound meditation called "the purest region," uttered through mystery, Glory to all the Buddhas; wonderful holder of blessing; who art possessed of equal elevation with the heavens—salutation. This is the prayer of Nam-khe nying Po.

Then the Bodhisatwa GRIPPA THAM CHET NAM-PAR SELVA (S. Sarva Anavarana Vishkambhi, being immersed in the meditation, called "the power of great mercy," uttered his mystery. Glory to the exalted Buddhas; thou who art not separated; connected with the Aswattha tree. Trâm Trâm, Râm Râm—salutation.

[This is one of the Mantras, of which there is no making any sense; some allusion is implied probably, a knowledge of which is necessary to explain the words. The concluding syllables are merely ejaculatory monosyllables.]

Then the Bodhisatwa Kuntu Chenresik Vangchuk (S. Avaloriteswara) being immersed in the meditation called (after him) Kuntu Chenresik, or "looking everywhere with clear vision," thus together with his followers uttered his own radical mystery, Glory to the exalted Buddhas: universal Tathdagata, Avalorita; abounding with clemency—Ra-ra-hum-jah—salutation. This is the mantra of Chenresik.

Glory to the exalted Buddhas, Jang-jang sa, salutation.

This is the mantra of Thu-on HEN T'HOP (S. MAHA St HANA PRAPTA).

Glory to the exalted Buddhas; offspring of clemency, TARA, by whom existence is traversed—salutation. This is the Mantra of the LHAMO GROL MA (the goddess TARA).

Glory to the exalted Buddhas: frightener of every fear Hum, Sphotaya—salutation. This is the mantra of Kronyer

Chen Má (S. Bhrikuti).

Glory to the exalted Buddhas: born from all the *Tathágatas*; decorated with a chaplet of Lotus flowers—salutation. This is the Mantra of *Kos Kar Chen* (S. Pándura vásiní(, the goddess clothed in white garments.

Glory to the exalted Buddhas: Hum-Eat-bind-Sphotaya.

This is the Mantras of a Ta-grin. (S. Kinnara.)

Then the Bodhisatwa Sahi NYING PO (S. KSHITI GERBHA) being immersed in the meditation called "the region of reasoning," uttered this mystery, Glory to the exalted Buddhas, Haha-ha Putanu—salutation. This is the mantra of Sahi NYING PO.

Then the Bodhisatwa Jam-pal Zhon nur gyurzh pa (S. Manju Sri Kumara bhatta bhuta) being immersed in the deep meditation called "the miraculous transformation by the blessings of Buddha," thus uttered his own radical mystery, Glory to the exalted Buddhas. He-he-he, the young prince, Liberation. Communion.—Remember, remember, resist. Swaha. This is the Mantra of Jam-pal.

Then CHARNA DORJE (S. VAJRAPÁNI), the lord of those who deal with mysteries, being immersed in the deep meditation called "the invincible," thus uttered together with his followers his own radical mystery, Glory to the exalted Vajras, fierce and greatly wrathful. Hum. This is the mantra of CHARNA DORJE.

(Similar mantras by the goddess MAMAKi and five others

follow, occupying three lines.)

Then the Lord SAKYA THUP-PA (MUNI) being immersed in the deep meditation called "the mine of precious things," thus with his attendants uttered his own mystery, Glory to the exalted Buddhas; reliever of all distress; master of all virtue. Equal, equal to the heavens—salutation. This is the Mantra of SAKYA THUP-PA.

(Similar mantras are continued through the following page of the same leaf.)

The Tibetan Text in Roman Character.

NOTE.—The letters in italics at the commencement of any syllable, are omitted in the pronunciation. The Sanskrit passages or mantras are printed in italics.

Mi blun po dé dag gis hdi ltar bchom-ldan-ddas thams chad mkhyen pa chhos thams chad la mñah brnyes pa Sems chan gyi don rtogs "*par thugs su chhud pa dés sñon sems chan rnams la phan par Bzhed nas hdi dag thams chad bshad do zhes bya var ni mi shes so.

Chhos rnams kyi ni chhos kyi mts'han bLun po dès ni dé mi-shes; Chhos rnams kun gyi mts'han nyid ni, stong pa nyid du yang dag gsungs sñags pa rtag tu der gnas nas, rab tu ñes par las byaho. Bgogs zhi var bya va rim par phyé vá sté rgyas pa ho.

Dé-nas phyag na rdo rjé la sogs pa rdo rjé hdsin pa dé dag dang Kun tu bzang po la sogs pa byang chhub sems Dpah dí rnams kyis behom-ldan-hdas rnam-par-snang-mdsad la phyag hts'hal nas snying rjé chhen po hbyung vahi dkyil hkhor chhen po hdir chhos kyi dvyings rnam par dag pahi Sgo ji ltar rtogs pa rang rang gi ts'hig tu brjod pahi ts'hig gis gsang sñags rnams smra var hdod nas behom-ldan-hdas la gsol va btab po dé nas bchom-ldan-hdas rnam par snang mdsad kyis byang chhub sems dpah dé dang rdo rjé hdsin dé dag la mi nyams pahi chhos nyid du byin gyis brlabs nas bkah stsal pa: Rigs kyi bu dag chhos kyi vyings ji ltar rtogs pa bzhin sems chan gyi khams rnam par sbyang vahi gsang sñags kyi ts'hig rnams smros-shig.

Dé-nas dé-hí ts'hé byang chhub sems Dpah Kun tu bzang pos sangs rgyas kyi yul zhes bya vahi ting gé hds'in la snyoms par zhugs nas Stobs thogs pa med pahi gsang sñags smras pa: Namah Sámanta Baddhánám; Samantánugati Varaja, Dhermanirgata, Mahá Mahá. Swáhá. Kun tu bzang po hiho.

Dé-nas byang chhub sems dpah byams pas byamspa chhen po kun tu mñon par hbyung va zhes bya vahi ting gé hdsin la snyoms par zhugs nas rang gi snying po smras pa: Namah Samanta Buddhánám, Ajitanajaya, Sarvva Satwayashayánugata, Swáhá. Byams pahi ho.

Dé-nas byang chhub sems dpah nam mkhahi snying po rnam par dag pahi yul zhes-bya vahi ting gé hdsin la snyoms par zhugs nas gsang sñags smras pa: Namah Samanta Buddhánám, A'kásha somatánugata Vichittram Varadhara, Swáhá. Nam mkhahi snying pohi ho.

* The Tibetan fragment of Giorgi commences here.

Dé-nas byang chhub sems dpah sgrib pa thams chad rnam par sel va Snying rjé chhen pohi Stobs zhes bya vahi ting gé hdsin la snyoms par zhugs-nas g,sang sñags smras pa: Nama Samanta Buddhánam, A'swaáta hrita, Avyudgata, Trám Trám, Ram Ram, Swáhá. Sgrib ba thams chad rnampar sel vahi ho.

Dé nas byang chhub sems dpah kun tu spyan ras gzigs dvang phyug spyan ras gzigs zhes bya vahi ting gi hdsin la snyoms par zhugs nas rang gi snying po hkhor dang behas par smras pa: Namah Samanta Buddhánán, Sarvva Tathágata, Avalokita, Karaná, Máyá, Ra Ra Ra, Hum jah, Swáha. Spyan ras gzigs dvang phyug gi ho.

Namah Samanta Buddhánám, jang jangsa, Swáhá.

chhen-thob pahi ho.

Namah Samanta Buddhánám, Karnnodbhavé Tárí Taráni, Swáhá. Lha mo sgrol ma hi ho.

Namah Samanta Buddhánám, Sarvva Bhaya Trásaái Hum

spho'taya, swáhá. Khro G,nyer chan mahi ho.

Namah Samanta Buddhánám, Tathágata Vishwayá, Sambavé, Padma málini, Swáhá.

Gos dkar-chan gyi-ho. Namah Samanta Buddhánám,

Hum khada bandha spho'taya, Swáhá. RTa Ngrin gyi ho.

Dé-nas byang chhub sems dpah-sahi snying po rdo rje mi shigs pa r,tog pahi yul zhes bya vahi ting gé hdein las snyoms par shugs nas gsang sñags smras pa: Namah Samanta Buddhánám Ha Ha, Putánu, Swáhá. Sahi snying pahi ho.

Dé-nas byang chhub sems Dpah hjam dpal gzhon nur gyur pas sangs rgyas kyi byin gyis brlabs rnam par hphrul pa zhes bya vahi ting gé hdsin la snyoms par zhugs nas rang gi snying po smras-pa: Namah Samanta Buddhánám, Hé Hé Hé, Kumaraka, Vimukti, Sathirthati, Smara smara, Prathihana, Swáhá. Hjam dpal gyi ho.

Dé nas gsang va pahi bdag po Phyag na rdo rjé mi hpham pazhes by vahi ting gé hdsin la snyoms par zhugs nas rang gi snying po hkhor dang behas pa smras pa: Namah Samanta Vaj'ránán, Chánda Máhá*'' Ros'hana Hum. Phyakna rdo

*r*jéhi ho.

Dé-nas déhi ts'hé. Chom-ldan-hdas Shákya Thub pas rin po chhehi hbyung gnas zhes bya vahi ting gé hdsin la snyoms par zhugs nas nyid kyi snying po hkhor dang behas pa gsungs pa: Namah Samanta Buddhánám, Sarvvaklésha nishuddhána, Sarvva Dherma vahi prapta, Gagana sama sama, swáhá. Shákya Thub pahi ho.

*Giorgi's fragment ends here in the middle of the word mahá, the remaining passage is added to complete the sense.

कुरा देशका ग्री अक्ष कुर्त हो। कुर ता कुर निमानिशिया। क्रेनाश. कुरा देशका ग्री कुर्ण ग्री अक्ष । विश्व निमानिश्य । कुर्ण निमानिश्य । विश्व कुर्ण निमानिश्य । कुर्ण निमानिश्य

रान्तार्रिन्यान्यावया। रवार्रिस्यराययान्त्रीत्।। वनीनायाः वर मु वर रेम पर छे वर्षे मुमायरे ।। देवस सुमाव हे हे ता श्रीमाम रार्डे. है. पहुंदे रार्टे. रेची रेट. ग्रेंब. रें. वजट. सू.ज.जूचेश रा. वेट. क्व. শ্রমধা. ২বাব. ১.৭শমর. ট্রিগার <u>রূ</u>ম. জব. ৫**২**শ. ধ্রমার্মর. শ্রুচাম**র্ছ**রেম. विमातक्तावरा क्षेटाहे केवारा त्युटायते प्रीतात्राहर केवारा तिर क्रुमाणु,रेनुत्रमार्थमार्थरमार्थरम्भि,ह. केर.ह्योशारान्यत्र रटामाः क्रुमा र्रे.चहूर.राष्ट्र.कूची.चूथा. चशट. र्ज्याशा क्ष्मश्रः स्था स्थ्री. यर. ७ टूर. वश. च दुश. ज्यत्रसामार्थायायायाया । त्रिक्यायहेसास्य त्रिकासामा स्थाप सहर गुरानित क्या श्रेस र राय रे रे मार्टा हे हि यह वरित मारा मुळिषशतपु.कूर्य.कुर्.रे.मुब्र.मुक्ष.पश्चपश्चर्यायगाप.क्षेषाता र्याक्ष. <u> ગુે.વે.રેના, જૂરા ગુે. ટેવુંદજા દુ.કેર.કુંનોજા વાત્તલુંય સુષ્ટજા જ્યે.ગુે.નેપ્રજા</u> र्यातर ब्रिट्र पदे माशट क्रमाश गु. क्रमा स्थर ब्रिश निमा दे वया देहे. ⊋.ਹੋ੮.ਉਧ.ਝੁਬਾਂਬਾ.ਟੇਜ਼ਹ. ਪੌਕ.ਏ.ਖ≡੮.ਸ਼ੁਝਾ.ਝਾ੮ਆ.ਥੈਂਬ.ਪੁੰ.ਥੈਂ4.ਸੂ.ਨੀਯ. *७्स.चै. चर् .हुट.ह.रहूच.*ज.श्रुंशश.तर.**बेनोश.**वश.हूंचश.हुम्थ.त.श्रुट. तपु.माशट.कृमाश.क्षेश्व.त। य.श्वःश.शर्वे.वे.टे.वेय। श.शर्वे वे.मा.टे.च. राष्ट्रका केर हर्नु मानु मानु मुन्।।।। गुक्तु प्रवाद में दे दे ।। देवस विट छिय. शुष्टाश्चित्र रिक्षश.ताश. विश्वश.ता. छुते.ता. गीबे.वे.सार्ट्य.तार. ៹ঀৢৢঢ়**৾ঢ়৾৾ঢ়৾ঀ৾ড়য়৾ঀৣ৾৽ঢ়৾ঢ়৾ঢ়ঢ়৾ঢ়ঢ়৾ৼ৾ড়৾ড়য়য়৽ঢ়ৼ৽ঀৢৢঀঢ়ড়ৼৼৼ**ঢ়ঀ श्रीट ये अस्या वामा मान्या मान ल.च.ल.चे.म.२मे.चे। वेश्वरात्तरे.प्रे। ट्रेथरावेट क्यासम्बद्धार वसास्रायतः श्रीटः स्त्रक्ताः सर्भाः सर्भः प्रतितालेशः च वत् द्वाः हः तहे व श्रेष्रश्रातर विधाश वश माशट र्जमाश श्रेशता। व.शःश अर्वे वेट हैं. वृत्। ष्राणा-वासासान् वामान वे सिंद्रीया राष्ट्र सुन्। वसासामिते श्रेट स दे ते ।। दे बंबा निट छ य श्रेस शार्य द भी या राम शास्य हर देश तर श्रीयाय । श्रीट हे के वृत्ये दे र्यूयश विश नु यदे र्देट टे दिंद या श्रेशशतर विवास वस माशट र्जमाश श्रेशत। व शहस सर विवे हैं वैव सर खेलाचते दि ।। दे बका चिटा छ्वा खेलका द्वाद गुन दु धुन रहा चाज्ञेचाश्वर्यतः सुकागावरः दे श्वर्यः रशःचाज्ञेचाशः लेशः यः वः देतः हेरः हेर हेर्द्वरः श्रुंशश्राचर विवाशवंश रट में श्रेट मूर्य विर. रट वदश घर श्रिशत। वासःसम्बद्धराङ्क् वव। सङ्गार्गामाराष्ट्रामाराष्ट्रामाराष्ट्रामाराष्ट्रामाराष्ट्रामाराष्ट्रामाराष्ट्रामाराष्ट्र र र र र हुँ हः सुन्। सुन र स न ने न स र दिया मिर्टे ।। न संहरा सर्वे.वेर.वें.वेंबे। इटाइट.अ.वेंचे। अवे.कुब.व्य.राष्ट्रा ब.स.स. सर्वितः हुर्वे। याउँ हिन द्वे के नुने ने के हुन्ते। क्षे ही ह्या स्वीतः सदी दि।। न्यःसम्बद्धन्त्रः हुन्। सहन्यः। द्रसने हुः ह्यारे सहन्। हि मानेर उन सदि दें। न महस्य सह सुर हूं तूं। न मान में प्राप्त श्रद्भव। महास्रामे वेसुन्। मिरानगर उन्मित्। वास्रास्त्र उर्हें बेरा है मिर वर्ड हैं रिया है न र समीर में दें। दें रहा वित्रक्षित्रश्रम्भन्त्रत्यत्रभूते क्षेट्या हे हि.क्षे विन्नम्य। हेन्यात्रे तीय क्रि. में चर् द्रेट ट्र प्रूर्य पर श्रेशकातर विमाश वर्ष । मेशट हमाश

•No. III. Note on the Origin of the Kála-Chakra and Adi-Buddha Systems.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. II, p. 57 (1833).]

The peculiar religious system entitled the Kála-Chakra is stated, generally, to have been derived from Shambhala, as it is called in Sanscrit, (in Tibetan "bdé-hbyung," vulgó "dèjung," signifying "origin or source of happiness"), a fabulous country in the north, the capital of which was Cálapa, a very splendid city, the residence of many illustrious kings of Shambhala, situated between about 45° and 50° north latitude, beyond the Sita or Jaxartes, where the increase of the days from the vernal equinox till the summer solstice amounted to 12 Indian hours, or 4 hours, 48 minutes, European reckoning.

The Kála-Chakra was introduced into Central India in the last half of the tenth century after Christ, and afterwards, viâ Cashmír, it found its way into Tibet: where, in the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, several learned men, whose works are still extant in that country, published researches and commentaries on the Kála-Chakra system; among these authors the most celebrated are Puton, or Bu-stom, Khetup, or mKhasgrub and Padma Carpo, who lived respectively in the three

centuries above mentioned.

Padma Carpo (on the 68th leaf of his "Origin of (the Buddhistic) religion" hChhos-hbyung (vulgò "Ch'os-jung," consisting of 189 leaves,) thus describes the introduction of the Kála-Chakra into, or at, Nalanda (or Nalendra, a large religious establishment in Central India), and the doctrine which it contained:

"He (a certain pandit called TSILU or CHILU) then came to Nalanda in Central India, (S. Madhyam, Tib. dvus, or vulgò U). Having designed over the door of the Bihar the ten guardians (of the world), he wrote below them thus:

"He, that does not know the chief first Buddha, (Adi-Buddha), knows not the circle of time. (Kála-Chakra, dus-kyi

hkhor-lo, in Tibetan*).

^{*} The Kála-Chakra and Adi-Buddha systems are probably the same with that of the Samanians in the north, in Transoxana, and beyond the Jaxartes, as it has been described by M. Deguignes, in his "Histoire Générale des Huns," Livre 111, p. 223, etc., recently criticised by M. Remusat; since the doctrine of the Samanians is exactly the same, as I have found in the Tibetan volumes.—Besides the mystical theology and philosophy, there are in the Kála-Chakra system several works on astronomy, astrology, and prophetical stories on the rise, progress, and decline

He, that does not know circle of time, knows not the exact

enumeration of the divine attributes.

He, that does not know the exact enumeration of the divine attributes, knows not the supreme intelligence (S. Vajra dhara jnyána, Tib. rdo-rjé hdsin-pahi yé-shes).

He, that does not know the supreme intelligence, knows

not the Tantrica principles (Tantra Yanam).

He, that does not know the Tantrika principles, and all such, are wanderers in the orb of transmigrations, and are out of the way (or path) of the supreme triumphator (S. Bhagaván Vajra dhara, Tib. b.chom-klan-hdas rdo-rje hdsin-pa).

"Therefore, Adi-Buddha (Tib. mchhog-gi dang-pohi Sangs-rgyas) must be taught by every true bLama (S. Guru, a superior teacher, religious guide), and every true disciple who aspires to liberation (or emancipation) must hear them." Thus wrote he

"The venerable (the lord) Nírotapa (Narottama!) being at that time the principal (S. *Upádhyaya*, Tib. mkhan-po) of the *Bihar*; he, together with five hundred pandits, disputed with him, but when they saw that he excelled them all in disputing, they fell down at his feet, and heard of him *Adi-Buddha*: then this doctrine was much propagated."—See leaf 68, by Pádma Cárpo.

Here follows the text of the above-quoted passage by PADMA CARPO, both in the Tibetan and Roman characters.

चुंशकी भी श्राप्त देश के मांशकी के मांचा श्राप्त श्रा

of the Muhammedan faith.—In the batan-hygur collection (of 225 volumes) the first volumes contain fifty-two tracts or treatises on the Kóla-Chakra, all translated from the Sanscrit; but, besides these, there are many other volumes written by Tibetan authors on the same subject. In the Asiatic Society's library, there are also some printed volumes, containing commentaries on the Kála-Chakra; by Khétan or more properly mKhaggrub, mentioned in this paper as a very celebrated writer in the fifteenth century. Should I find any interesting article in it, I shall take occasion to notice it hereafter.

मिनाश गु.होना दा.श. पुश.त.टे. वश्वश. स्ट. के. प्रीत्र प्राचा हे. प्रवृत्ता हाक त्रसारें है तिहें दादी त्यम प्राप्त वाया वाया । रेप्स प्रसाद सार्केना मी रट. तु दु. अट्य स्थार्य स्थार देश रा देश रा देश रा प्रीश प्रतिय राट सि हिट । वर तार्चे र मेर्डर वर्ड ह्येंच सर्भाय इसस ग्रीससक्त वर वेट्र विश्वतिशय।" हे वे दुरे ५ य दे तुश्वदे सम्बद्धे भेदास। देवा <u> जुनाश्चारा राष्ट्रे २.जि. चर्चेश. चर्स २. तश्चार, तेश ५ . तर अधूर, वशालियश.</u> त्य. चर्न, ते. देट. त्र. व्र. श्रटश. मेश. ३४. तश. ३४. देर. चर. चेर. त. धेव वे ।। १

Dé nas dvus Nalandar byon, gtsug-lag khang-gi sgo gongdu rnampa behu dvang ldan bris, déhi gsham-du: "Gang-gsi mchhog-gi dang-pohi Sangs-rgyas mi-shes-pa dés ni dus-kvi hkhor-lo mi-shes-so; Gang-gis dus-kyi hkhor-lo mi-shes-pa-dés ni mtshan yang-dag-par brjod-pa mi-shes-so; Gang-gis mtshan yang-dag-par brjod-pa mi-shes-pa dés rdo-rjé hdsin-pahi-yéshes-kyi sku-mi-shes-so; Gang-gis rdo-rjé hdsin-pahi yé-sheskyi sku mi-shes-pa dés snags-kyi thég-pa mi-shes-so; Gang-gis snags-kyi thég-pa mishes-pa déthams-chad ni hkhor-va-pa sté bchom-ldan-hdas rdo-rje hdsin-pahi, lam dang bral-vaho. ta-vas-na mchhog-gi dang-pohi Sangs-rgyas ni bLámá dam-parnams-kyis betan-par-bya-zhing, thar-pa don-du gnyér-vahi elobma dam-pa-rnams-kyis mnyan-par-byaho,'' zhes bris-pa.

Jovo Nárotapa dé nus déhi mkhan-po yin-pas, dé la sogs pa Pandita Ina brgyas brtsad-pas phul-du phyin-par mthongnas zhabs-la btud-dé dang-pohi Sangs rgyas nyan-pas chhér dar-

var gyur-pa yin-no.

No mention is made of the Kála-Chakra, nor of Adi-Buddha. by ancient writers in India, till the 10th century, except in the first volume of the rGyut class in the Kah-gyur, where it is evidently an interpolation from true historical works of later ages.

Since the passage above exhibited is an authentic text for the name of Adi-Buddha, while it furnishes a general idea of the Kála-Chalcra system, I have thought proper to bring it to the notice of the Society, and hope it will be of some interest.

No. IV. Translation of a Tibetan Passport, dated A.D. 1688.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. II, p. 201 (1833).]

[Read 24th April, 1833.]

In Hyde's Historia Religionis Veterum Persurum (2nd edition, page 552-3), there is an engraving of a passport granted by the governor (or grand Lama) of Lassa, to an Armenian, of which, at the time of its publication, no European was able to decypher the characters. The learned author's account of it is in the following words:

"Secundò damus Scripturam Tatarorum de Boutan* (al. Boutunt) citra Imaum supra Indiam. Hujus lectio est à dextrâ†: et hocce ejusdem elegantissimum specimen est, id quod vulgò sonat, un passport, seu salviconductús litere, à principe urbis et provincise de Boutan date, nuperis annis, Chogja Ouanni (i. e. Domino Joanni) mercatori Armeno ibidem negotianti: et dictus princeps nomen suum (ut vides) sigilli loco et forma majusculis et implicatis characteribus infra apposuit. Talis sigilli impressio arabibus dicitur توقيع taukia; Persis et Turcis tográ, unde, apud eos, talis majusculorum characterum scriptor, aut talis sigilli factor, vel appositor seu principis subsignator, vecatur Tográt. Hanc chartam nobiscum communicavit singularis amicus D. Joh. Evans S. T. D. nuperis annis ex India redux."

The character of this curious manuscript proves to be the small running-hand of the Tibetans, written and engraved with hardly a single error. The following is a version of it in Roman characters, which may be interesting to those who possess Hyde's very learned volume.

Chhos-hkhor dPal gyi Lha-sa nas.—r('ya-gar hphags-yul bar-gyi Sa-lam-du hkhod-pahi Ser, skya, drag, zhan, Lhahi mi-rje rdsong bsdod gnyer las-hdsin, Sog, Bod, Hor, hBrog, ir-hchhihi hgrul hgrims, lam hphrangs bsrung bkag, rgan mi dmangs bya-va zhi drag-gis sné slébs bchas mthah dag-la springs pa.—Lha-sa p'hun-ts'hogs lchang-lo-chan-gyi hgron-po mGo dkar‡ It'hang-na-chan mi bzhi zhon khal behu-drug bchas nyé-

† This is of course a mistake: the Tibetan reads like the Sanskrit from

the left hand.

^{*} Boutan, though applied by Europeans and Mohammedans to Tibet generally, is properly the name of one of the southern provinces, called in Tibetan Llopato: Lhassa is the capital of Tibet Proper or U-tsang. [See Journ. As. Soc. i. 123.]

[†] The name mGo-dkar (properly white-headed, but rendered by me, above, by Mohammedans) formerly was applied in Tibet both to the Mohammedans of India and to the Europeans. But of late the Tibetans have commenced calling the Europeans by the name of Philing-pa, and an European of British India by that of rGye-Philing (-pa) or Indo-European.

khohi ts'hong gyur grubs-nas rang yul-du log Agro-var stahur-g yi (? Lha-hur-gyi) mts'hon gang spyihi par rog nyan-du gang kgro-las sné gor Ap'hrog behom sogs gnod Agol-du log-par Agro-va nyan ma byed-par phar phyir-du bde-var Agrims-chhug.—Zhes sa Abrug zla ts'hes-la lugs gnyis kyi mdun-sa Chhos-hkhor chhon po dPal-gyi Lha-sa nas bris. Bod-pahi zla hdres med-ching lo-thog mi-khal-gyi hkhri sgrub dés hgré

byung phyin bdé-var harims chhug.

square

Translation.

"From the noble (city) Lhassa, the circumambulating race of religion.—To those that are on the road as far as Arya Desa or India, to clerical, laical, noble, ignoble lords (or masters) of men; to residents in forts, stewards, managers of affairs, to Mongols, Tibetans, Turks, and to dwellers in tents in the desert; to ex-chis (or el-chis, envoys, or public messengers, vakils or ambassadors, &c.) going to and fro; to keepers and precluders of bye-ways (or short-cuts); to the old (or head) men, collectively, charged to perform some business of small or great importance; to all these is ordered (or is made known). These four foreign (or travelling) persons residing at Lhassa, Ichang-lo-chan, Mohammedans of It'hang-na, after having exchanged their merchandize, going back to their own country, having with them sixteen loads on beasts; having nothing for their defence except some Lahori-weapons,—do not hinder, rob, plunder, et cetera, them; but let them go to and fro in peace.

Thus has been written from the noble Lhassa, the great religious race, from the senate-house of both ecclesiastical and civil affairs, in Sahbrug* (in the year of T. ch. 1688). On

the day of the month. (These dates are wanting.)

Note. There is no Tibetan joined with them. They have about a man's load of victuals wrapped up in a bundle; with that there has been made an inreease (of packages), but let them go in peace."

A square

Colonel Warren in the Kala Sankalisa (Chron. tab. xxi.) has given a full description of the Indian system;—a catalogue of the Tibetan cycle, which is two-fold, one following the Sanskrit, the other following the Chinese system, will be published in the Tibetan Dictionary now prepar-

ing for the press.

^{*} Sa-hbrug (earth's dragon) is the title of the second year of the Tibetan cycle of sixty years: it corresponds with Vibbaba of the Indian and Vibbaba of the Chinese cycle. The Tibetan reckening commences from February, 1026: as therefore Hyde's first edition was printed in 1701 and he uses the expression "nuperic annis ex India redux." the MSS has been referred to the twelfth cycle, then current, which fixes its date to the year 1688.

No. V. Origin of the Shakya Race translated from the A (La), or the 26th volume of the mDo class in the Ká-gyur, commencing on the 161st leaf.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. II, p. 385 (1833).]

On a certain occasion, when Shakya (in the text মামোলুমার্ অবসংস্থা Sangs-rgyas behom-ldan hdas; Sanscrit, Buddha

Bhagaván) was in the Nyagrodha grove (S. Arama), near Serskya Gzhi (S. Capilavástu), many of the Shákyas that inhabited Capilavástu being gathered together in their council-house,

questioned one another, saying: Shès-dan-tak! (निश द्वार प्राप्त

"intelligent ones:" an address.) "Whence sprang the Shakya race? What is their origin? What is the cause of reason thereof? And what is the ancient national descent of the Shákyas? If any one should come to us, and ask us about those points, we could not tell him whence the Shákyas originated. Come, let us go to Bhagaván and ask him on the subject, that we may abide by his saying."

Thereupon a very great number of the Shákyas inhabiting Capilavástu, went to the place where Bhagava'n (bchom-ldan hdas) was, and after having made their salutation by prostrating

themselves at his feet, sat aside.

Having addressed him by this term \$\\ \sigma_5'\sigma_1', btsun-pa

(Venerable Sir!) they repeat again, how they had been assembled, on what subject they had talked, and how they had resolved to come before him; and then they begged of him, that he would acquaint them with those things that they might afterwards tell them to others.

BRAGAVAN thinking that, should he himself tell the history of the ancient national descent of the Shákyas, then the Tirthikas and Pariorajakas (or they that are not of his followers) would say, that GAUTAMA tells whatever he pleases, to praise himself and his tribe. Not to give them an opportunity for using such expressions, he reflected within himself who were there among his disciples, who could tell, in an instructive manner, the ancient descent of the Shákwas.

Perceiving Mongalyana to be present, and judging that he was a fit person for that purpose, he called on hen, saying,

"Mongalyana; I am somewhat indisposed (I feel some pain in my back', and want repose; be you empowered by me to tell to the priests (Gelongs) in an instructive manner the ancient national descent of the Shákyas." He, nothing loth, assented. Shákya seeing that he obeyed his bidding, and having folded up his cloak, and put it for a bolster or cushion, leaning on his right side, and laying his feet upon each other, with a clear knowledge, recollection, and self-consciousness, composed himself to sleep.

Môngalyana (with the prefixed title 3550351, S.

Ayusmán, long-lived; Ayusmán Mônyalyana), in order to collect his ideas on the subject, entered into a deep meditation, wherein he saw the whole story. Recovering from his ecstasy, he sat down on a carpet, spread on the ground, in the middle of the priests. Then he addressed the Shákyas of Capilavástu, in the following manner:

"Gautamas! (or descendants of Gautama, বাঁচিমান্মা)

Sems-chan, Sanscrit Satwa) mostly were born again amongst the gods, in that division of the heaven which is called

that of "clear light" (S. Abháswára, Tib. বৃদ্ধার). And

they resided there for a long period of time, having an intellectual body, perfect in all its members and limbs, of a good colour, shining by itself; they walked in the air or heaven, and their food consisted of pleasures only.

At that time this great earth was turned into mere water; it consisted of one lake or ocean. At length, on the surface of that ocean there was formed by the air a thin substance, like skim on the surface of boiled milk, that grew hard and covered the whole surface. That earthly essence was of a fine colour, odour, and taste. The colour like that of fresh butter; the taste like that of refined honey. Descendants of Gautama! Such was the beginning of this world.

Then, some animal beings in Abháswára, having finished their lives, were born again to taste of the condition of man, and came to this earth. They were with a perfect body produced from the mind (or they had an intellectual body), having all their members and limbs entire; they had a fine colour, and they were shining by themselves; they walked in the air or heaven, and fed on pleasures only; they lived for a long period.

There was at that time in the world no sun, no moon, no stars, no distinction of time, no moment, no minute, no night and day, no month and year. No distinction into male and female

sex. They were called all by this one name, Animal () Sems-chan).

Afterwards an animal being, of a covetous nature, tasted with his finger's top of the earthly essence (Sahi-b,chud

355), and the more he tasted the more he liked it, and the more

he liked the more he ate thereof, till by little and little he ate a mouthful. Other animal beings having observed him, they likewise did the same.

When those animal beings had eaten, successively, each a mouthful, then entered into their bodies solidity and heaviness. The brightness of their colour vanished, and then arose darkness in the world. Gautamas! After there had morally arisen darkness in the world, the sun and moon appeared, and so the stars also, and the distinction of time into moment, minute, night and day, month and year, began. They passed thus a long time, living on that essential food. They that had eaten but little of that food, were possessed of a fine complexion or colour, they that had eaten much became of a bad colour. And so from the measure of food, there arose among them two species of colour. "Ha! Animal being! I have a good colour, thou hast a bad colour;"—thus spoke contemptuously one animal being to another. On account of the sin of such proud talk with respect to colour, that earthly essence disappeared.

Gautamas! The earthly essence having disappeared, the animal beings, gathered together, uttered many lamentations, and recollecting what a fine flavour it had, regretted much the

loss of that substance.

Gautamas! After the earthly essence of the animal beings had vanished, there arose from the earth a fatty substance of a fine colour and taste. They lived for a long time by eating of that substance. They that ate but little of that food were possessed of a good complexion or colour: they that ate much became of a bad colour. And thus from the measure observed in eating, there arose among them two species of colour. ""Ha! Animal being! I have a good colour, thou hast a bad colour"; thus contemptuously addressed one animal being to another animal being. On account of the sin of pride, again, the fat of the earth disappeared.

Gautamas! The fatty substance of the earth having disappeared, the animal beings gathering together, uttered lamentations; and recollecting what a fine flavour it had, they regretted much its loss; but they could not tell in words their sentiments.

Gautamas! After the greasy substance of the earth had vanished, there arose a sugar-cane plantation, of a fine colour, odour, and taste. The animal beings passed afterwards a long

time by living on that food, until the same cause led to its dis-

appearance.

Gautamas! After the sugar-cane plantation had vanished, there came forth clean and pure salu (rice), without being ploughed or sown, having no straw, no husk, no chaff; if cut in the evening it ripened again till the next morning (or there was every evening and morning ready a fresh crop). The animal beings passed a

long time living on salu.

From the use of that fruit there arose the distinction of sexes. Some of the animal beings became males, and some females. The different sexes regarded each other with fixed eyes. The more they regarded each other, the more they became affectionate and desired each other. Being observed by others, they were reproached by them for their actions, and hated. They threw on them stones, clods, etc. (in the same manner as now they use at the celebration of nuptials, to cast or sprinkle on the bride scented powder, perfume, chaplets, clothes, and parched rice, saying, May you be happy!) and reproved them much. The others, in their turn, replied, "Why do you thus abuse us now, is there no other proper time for telling us these things?"

Gautamas! Thus what anciently was regarded as an immoral action, is now taken for a virtue. They restrained themselves for a time (for 2, 3, or 7 days) from satisfying their lust. But afterwards not being able to contain themselves they commenced to make some covert, or hiding place, whither they might retire from the sight of others to satisfy their lust: saying repeatedly, We will practise here what is not to be done elsewhere, and uttering, Khyim, khyim; covert, covert, or house.

house.

Gautamas ! This is the first beginning of building houses. They used to gather in the evening the sálu that was required for the evening repast, and in the morning that which they wanted in the morning. Afterwards it happened once that a certain animal being having gathered sálu in the evening for the next morning also, when he was called on by another animal being to go and gather sálu, he said to him, "O animal being take heed to thine own salu, I have brought vester-evening the sálu, which I require this morning." Then the other animal being reflected with himself thus: "Ah, well then! I shall hereafter take sálu for 2, 3, nay for 7 days, at once." He did afterwards accordingly as he had said. Then an animal being said to him, "Come, let us go to bring salu." He then said to him, "O animal being, take care for thine own salu: I for myself have brought at once, for seven days." Then that animal being reflected with himself thus, "O well, very well, I shall take at once for fifteen days—for one month. And he did accordingly. When the sálu had been taken thus by anticipation by these animal beings, there grew afterwards salu that was covered

with straw, husk, and chaff, and when cut down, grew not again.

Then those animal beings assembled together, and reflected

on their former state thus:

Shes-dan-tak! (এমামুর্ব্বা, etc.) See leaves 168, 169.

[Here follows a repetition of the above described stories respecting the several changes that took place in the state of the animal beings. How perfect they were formerly, and how degenerate they are now.]

Afterwards, being gathered together, some of them said, "We must mete out the land and assign the boundary of each property; saying, This is thine, and this is mine." Accordingly, they measured and divided the land, and erected land-marks.

Gautamas! This is the first time in the world that men commenced to erect land-marks. This also was a natural con-

sequence.

It happened afterwards, that an animal being, who had his own sálu, took away that of another not being given to him (or stole it). Other animal beings having seen him, that, though he had his own sálu, he had taken away that of another, not being given him, they said thus to him, "Oh animal being! thou having thine own sálu, why takest thou that of another, without being given thee?" They seized him and dragged him on this and on that side, and took him into the congregation, and then reproved him thus, "Sirs! this animal being, having his own sálu, has taken away three times that of another without its

being given unto him."

Then those animal beings said to this, thus, "Oh! animal being, thou having thy own sálu, why takest thou that of another which he had not given thee? Oh! animal being; go now away, henceforth do not act in this manner." Then that animal being thus said to the others, "Intelligent beings! This animal being having dragged me on this side and on that side, on account of the sálu, taking me into the congregation, has also abused me (with his language)." Then those animal beings thus said to that animal, "Ha! animal being! after having dragged this animal hither and thither on account of the sálu, and having brought him into the congregation too, why hast thou abused him? Oh! animal being, go thou now thy way, hereafter do not

Then those animal beings reflected with themselves thus, intelligent beings! On account of salw, one is dragged hither and thither, and is rebuked also in the congregation. But we should meet, and from among us we should elect one (who is of a better complexion, handsomer countenance, more beautiful, more fortunate, and more renowned) for the master and proprietor of all our fields or lands.

He shall punish from among us those that are to be punished. He shall reward those that merit to be rewarded. And from the produce of our lands we shall give him a certain part, according to a rule.

They accordingly met, and elected one for their master and proprietor of their lands, and for the arbitrator of their controversies, saying to him; "Come, animal being, punish from among us those that are to be punished, and reward those with a gift that merit to be remunerated; from all the products of our lands we will pay you a certain rate, accordingly to a rule." Afterwards on both sides, they did accordingly. Since he was carried (or honoured) by a great multitude of animal beings,

he was called হাট্ট্রাম্মরে Mang-pos bkur-va; Sanscrit,

Mahá Sammata, "Honoured by many."

Gautamas! At the time of Mahá Sammata, man was

called by this name, "Animal being."

Gru-hdsin* the harbour.) He had two sons, Gotama and Bharadhwaja The former took the religious character, but Gotama being afterwards accused of the murder of a harlot, was unjustly impaled at Potala, and the latter succeeded to his father. He dying without issue, the two sons of Gotama inherit, who were born in a præter-natural manner; from the circumstances of their birth, they and their descendants are called by several names; as, water Yan-lag-s, kyes;

(S. Angirasa), কুমেই সাম্ভর ; Nyi-mahignyen, (S. Surya Vánsa).

Gautama. 555; 555; 555; 655; 8u-ram shing-pa, (S. Ikshwa-ku). One of the two brothers dies without issue, the other reigns under the name of Ikshwaku.

To him succeeds his son, whose descendants (one hundred) afterwards successively reign at Potala (निविद्या), Gru-hdsin.

The last of whom was ব্ৰংস্থান্থল্য মুক্তাই : Ikshwaku

^{*} The ancient Potala, or the modern Tatta, at the mouth of the lindus:

Virudhaka, (or Vidéhaka). He has four sons, 워크지드,

মদার, সুমেরিরেরে, and স্মেন্র্রান্তর. After the death

of his first wife, he marries again. He obtains the daughter of a king, under the condition that he shall give the throne to the son that shall be born of that princess. By the contrivance of the chief officers, to make room for the young prince to succession, the king orders the expulsion of his four sons.

They, taking their own sisters with them, and accompanied by a great multitude, leave Potala (ATAET), go towards the Himalaya, and reaching the bank of the Bhagirathi river (ANGE OF) settle there, not far from the hermitage

in huts made of the branches of trees. They live there on hunting; and sometimes they visit the hermitage of CAPILA the Rishi. He, observing them to look very ill, asks them why they were so pale. They tell him how much they suffer on account of their restraint or continence. He advises them to leave their own uterine sisters, and to take themselves (to wife) such as are not born of the same mother with them. O great Rishi! said the princes, is it convenient for us to do this? Yes, Sirs, answered the Rishi, banished princes may act in this way. taking for a rule the advice of the Rishi, they do accordingly. and cohabit with their non-uterine sisters, and have many children by them. The noise of them being inconvenient to the Rishi in his meditation, he wishes to change his habitation. But they beg him to remain in his own place, and to design for them any other ground. He therefore marks them out the place where they should build a town: since the ground was given to them by CAPILA, they called the new city Capilavastu. They multiply there exceedingly. The gods seeing their great number, show them another place for their settlement. They

build there a town, and call it by the name of PN THE Lhas-

bstan, (shown by a god).

Remembering the cause of their banishment, they make it a law, that no one of them hereafter shall marry a second wife of the same tribe, but that he shall be contented with one wife.

At Potala (TRES) the king IKSHWAKU VIRUDHARA. recollecting that he had four sons, asks his officers what has

become of them. They tell him, how for some offence His Majesty had expelled them, and how they had settled in the neighbourhood of the Himálaya, and that they have taken their own sisters for their wives, and have been much multiplied. The king, being much surprised on hearing this, exclaims several times: Shakya! Shakya! Is it possible! Is it possible! (or 0) daring! O daring!) $\Xi \Sigma' \gamma'$ phod-pa, and this is the origin of the Shakya name.

After the death of Ikshwaku Virudhaka, 5. 55. ACL द्यम् अभ्याने at Potala succeeds his younger son मारा हो द नाद , rgyal-srid dgah, (he that desires to reign). On his dying without children, the banished princes successively inherit. The three first have no issue; the son of TITITS, the fourth prince, is Gnag-hjog, नार्श देहना. His son is शानीश descendants to the number of 55,000 have reigned at Capilavastu. [An enumeration of the princes who reigned at Potala

after IKSHWAKU follows, which is identical with the list in Sanskrit authorities; the names being translated into Tibetan according to their literal meaning; as for Mahá Sammata,

Mang pos bkur-va, greatly honoured, etc.]

Here ends the narration of Mongalyana. approves and recommends it to the priests.

No. VI. Tibetan Symbolical Names, used as Numerals.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. III, p. 6 (1834).]

This mode of expressing numbers has been borrowed from India by the Tibetans. For some of the numerals specified below, there are yet other synonymous terms applied in Tibetan, as in Sanskrit, but in their works these only are of general use. Although the nine units, together with the zero (0), would be sufficient to express any greater number, yet there are used the following numerals also: 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 24, 25, 27, and 32.

When dictating to an assistant in symbolical names what to write in characters, the pandit commences the operation from right to left: thus if he says 3.51 (12), 5172 (0), 516 (4),

the other writes 4012, &c. This method is the same as that followed in the Shastras of India, therefore it is unnecessary to add anything further on the subject.

The following numbers are expressed by such names as are stated here below, and explained in English, to which the Sanskrit terms also have been added (with a few exceptions) not from Tibetan books, but from other sources:

? or 1. नाज्ञमाहा * gzugs, body ; S. shariram.

a, zla, the moon; S. chandra.

A 5 5715, hot-tkar, white brightness, the moon:

S. shwétá-rochis.

ਸਮੇਂ ਨੂੰ bse-ru, rhinoceros ; S. gandaka.

র or 2. ম্ন্ lag, the hand: S. bhuja, hasta, or pani.

ন্দ্ৰ mig, the eye : S. nétra, chakshus.

हुट द्वारा, zung-phyogs, or simply हुट, zung, the two sides, wings, halves, a pair, couple; S. chhada, pakshó, &c.

মন্ত্ৰীৰা, hkhrig, or মন্ত্ৰীৰ, bgrod, the twins; copulation.

३ or 3. दिना हैन, hjíg-rtan, the world; S. loka.

অব 5ব, yon-tan, quality; S. guna.

📆 Mé, fire S. agni or anala.

📆 rtsé, top, summit : S. agram.

vor 4. 515, mtsho, a sea or lake : S. samudra.

& chhu, water; S. jala or wari.

而, rkang, a foot: S. pàda.

. देन गुँद, Rig-byéd, a Vèda; S. Vèda.

❤ or 5. २५६, hbyung, an element; S. bhútam.

555 dvang, an organ of sense; S. indrayam.

মৃত্ব, mdah, an arrow : S. bána or vána.

body and soul; S. skandha.

east, south, west, zenith and nadir.

🏹 རྡོ་བຸ ro, bro-va, taste, savour ; S. rasa.

58, dus, time, season: S. samaya.

ν or 7. ΕΠΊ, Thub-pa, a sage; S. Muni.

55 English Drang-srong, an hermit: S. Rishi.

R ri, a hill or mountain; S. parvata.

ইয়ামান্ত, Res-gzah, a special or chief planet; S. Graha.

4 or 8. A klu, an hydra or snake; S. nága.

ষ্ট্ৰা, sbrul, serpent ; S. sarpa.

ন্ত্ৰ ydengs-chan, a hooded-snake; S. ?

ब्रेंट्रज् lto-hgro, creeping on its belly : S. uraga.

र्वेद nor or व्याप्त, nor-tha, wealth, or the eight gods

of wealth: S. Vasu or vasudéva.

\$5.51 sred-pa, affection, passion : S. ?

e or 9. 🚜 rtsa, root (or vein) : S. múla.

ম্বিদ্ gter, treasure ; S. kosham.

সূত্রQ, gzah, a planet; S. graha.

বুদা, bu-ga, a hole, S. chiddra.

\$15.21 Srin-po, an imp or goblin ; S. Rákshasa.

or 10. ZERN, phyoge, corner, quarter, point: S. Dik or

Dish. The ten points, 4 cardinal, 4 intermediate, the zenith and the nadir.

29 or 11. AZA 55, h, phrog-byed, that takes by force; S.

Hari, for Siva.

รุง Drag-po, the brave or fierce, S. Rudra, for Siva.

Shambhu, another name of Siva.

্বিচ্ট্রা, Dvang-phyug, the powerful: S. Ishwara, for Siva.

92 or 12. 35, Nyi-ma, the sun; S. Surya, Arka, Bhanu.

khyim, the sun's place in the zodiac; S. Griha or pl. Grihás, the 12 zodiacal signs.

23 or 13. A T, hdod-pa, lust, desire, wish, Cupid; S. Káma.

makes mad, lust, desire, wish, Cupido: S. Madana, Kama Deva.

or 14. 45, yid, the mind; S. manas.

🎒 👌 Ma-nu, ditto ; S. manu.

Styl, Srid-pa, existence, birth, the world; S. bhuvanam.

or 15. Zar, 35 97, tshes, nyin-zhag, the 15th day of a lunar month; any day of the semilunation. S. Aha or Ahan.

ে or 16. हो प्रदेश, Mi-bdag, lord of men, a sovereign; S.
Narapati.

नुवारी, Rayal-po, a king, prince ; S. Raja.

22 or 18. 355, nyes-pa, or skyon, vice, fault, blemish; S. Dosha.

ংত or 24. ব্ৰুমেন, Rgyal-va, he that has been victorious, a Jina or Buddha; S. Jina.

ev or 25. 5.35, de-nyid, the same self; S. tatwam.

or 27. Skar-ma, a star, one of the 27 constellations in the path of the moon; S. Nakshatra.

For 0 zero or 0 the following three terms are used:

মান্ত্ৰ, mkhah, void, space, S. kha, ákásha, gaganam.

প্রনা, thig, a spot, stain ; S. ? nabhas.

মূদ্দা, Stong-pa, the vacuum; empty space, zero; S. shúnyam.

No. VII. Extracts from Tibetan Works.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. III, p. 57 (1834).]

Tibetan beau-ideal of a wife.

[Extracted from the Bkah-hgyur, mdo kha, leaf 106-7; corresponding with leaf 73-74 of the Lalita vistara, the original Sanscrit text, in the Lantsa character, presented to the Society by Mr. Hodgson.]*

The required qualities in a maiden who may aspire to be united in marriage with Shakya are thus defined by himself:

"No ordinary woman is suitable to my taste and habits; none who is incorrect in her behaviour; who has bad qualities, or who does not speak the truth. But she alone will be pleasing and fit for me, who, exhilarating my mind, is chaste, young, of good complexion, and of a pure family and descent." He indited a catalogue of these qualifications in verse, and said to his father, "If there shall be found any girl with the virtues I have described, since I like not an unrestrained woman, let her be given to me in marriage." "She, who is young, well proportioned, and elegant, yet not boastful of her beauty (lit., with her body); who is affectionate towards her brother, sister, and mother; who alway rejoicing in giving alms, knoweth the proper manner how to bestow them on the priests and brahmans:-if there be found any such damsel, father, let her be brought to me. One who being without arrogance, pride, and passion, hath left off artifice, envy, deceit, and is of an upright nature :-- who even in her dreams hath not lusted after any other man; -- who resteth content with her husband, and is always submissive and chaste: -- who is firm and not wavering: -who is not proud or haughty, but full of humility like a female slave: -- who hath no excessive fondness for the vanities of sound, smell, taste (music, perfumes, and exquisite meats), nor for wine :--who is void of cupidity :--who hath not a covetous heart, but is content with her own possessions:-who, being upright, goeth not astray; is not fluctuating; is modest in her dress, and doth not indulge in laughing and boasting:who is diligent in her moral duties, without being too much addicted to the gods and festivals (or righteous overmuch). Who is very clean and pure in her body, her speech and her mind:-who is not drowsy nor dull, proud nor stupid;-but

^{*} See Journal, vol. i, page 380, and pages 1—8, where a brief analysis is given by Mr. Wilson, of the contents of the Lalita vistars.

being of good judgment, doth everything with due reflection:—
who hath for her father and mother-in-law equal reverence as
for a spiritual teacher:—who treateth her servants both male
and female with constant mildness:—who is as well versed as
any courtesan in the rites and ceremonies described in the
Shastras:—who goeth last to sleep and riseth earliest from
her couch:—who maketh every endeavour with mildness, like a
mother without affectation:—if there be any such maiden to be

found, father wive her unto me as a wife."

Afterway, the king (Sans. Shuddhodana, Tib. Zas-Qtsangma) directs his brahman minister (Sans. Purohita, Tib. Mdhunna-hdon) to go into the great city of Capila-vastu (Tib. Serskya-qzhi), and to inquire there in every house after a girl possessed with these good qualities, shewing at the same time Shakya's letter, and uttering two Slôkas, or verses, of the following meaning: "Bring hither that maiden who has the required qualities, whether she be of the royal tribe, or of the brahman caste; of the gentry, of the plebeian class. My son regardeth not tribe nor family extraction: his delight is in good qualities, truth, and virtue alone."

The objections of the Buddhists to the seclusion of woman may be gathered from the following imaginary conversation of SNAKYA's wife, extracted from the Kah-gyur, Do, Kh. vol. lsef 120-121 (corresponding with the Sanscrit Lalita visions, leaf 85).

Sá-hisho-ma (S. Hopa), the wife of Shakya, upon hearing of her being upbraised by the domestics for not concealing her

face when in company with others, expresses herself in some verses (against the veil), the meaning of which is as follows:

"Sitting, standing, and walking, those that are venerable, are pleasing when not concealed. A bright gem will give more lustre if put on the top of a standard. The venerable are pleasing when they go, they are agreeable also when they come. They are so whether they stand or whether they are sitting. In every manner the venerable are pleasing. The man excellent in virtue is pleasing when he speaks; he is so also when he sits As an example, doth not the Kalapinka bird appear more beautiful when she chaunteth her lovely song in your presence? The venerable man who putteth on a garment made of the kusha grass, or whose squalid clothing concealeth not his emaciated body, still shineth with his own lustre. He that hath good qualities is adorned by those qualifications. They who have put off all vices are venerable. Fools, committing vices, howmuchsoever they be adorned, are never pleasing. Those that have malice in their heart and speak a sweet language are like a poisoned bowl into which nectar is poured; or a cleft on a rock that is rough both inside and outside. Communion with such men is as though you would touch the mouth of a snake. With respect to the venerable, all resort to them, all reverence them. They are supported and cherished by all men, as the stairs descending to the water's edge are kept in repair by the multitude. The venerable are always like a bowl full of milk and curd. It is a great happiness to see human nature capable of such purity. Fraught with blissful consequences is the gift of such men as have renounced the company of the wicked, and being directed by a venerable religious guide, are become enamoured of the doctrine of the most perfect (Buddha). For such as have restrained their body, have suppressed the several defects of it, have refrained their speech, and never use a deceitful language; and having subdued the flesh, are held in restraint by a pure conscience: for such, to what purpose is the veiling of the face? They that have a cunning heart are impudent and shameless; and having not the required qualities, do not speak the truth :though they should cover their body even with a thousand clothes, they would go about in the world more naked than the unclothed. They that have concealed their passions, and have kept them under subjection, and are content with their own husbands, and think not on any other; such women, when not concealed by a veil, shine forth like the sun and moon. Moreover DRANG-SHONG (S. Ris'hi), the great Lord (God). who wise in knowing the heart's of others, yes, also the whole company of the gods, know my thoughts, my good morals, my virtues, my obligation, and my chastity. Therefore, way should L conceal my face ?" Zas Qisang-ma (S. Shuddhodana, the father of SHAKYA). her father-in-law, was much pleased with these expressions, and presented her with several precious things. He uttered at the same time one $sl\hat{o}ka$, the meaning of which is this: "My son being adorned with such qualities as he has, and my daughter-in-law having such virtuous qualifications as she describes; to see two such pure persons united together, is like when butter and ghee are mixed together."

मिनि ति.यु.केळ्ब.२४-इ.८५.४-त्मुक्य.५८-। स्रवतःस्ते.४-८-मी-ळ्ब.२४-इ.५४-४-तःश्चरा । स्रवतःस्ते.४-६-मी-क्व.४५८-५४-त्मुरःयः है। स्रवः ५८-४४-मी-क्वेरःयः मि-इ.५४-४२-४-५५४ ।

As breathing in accordance with the virtuous sentiments of the above favourable specimen of the Tibetan sacred works, we may here extract a curious correspondence (whether imaginary or real we will not pretend to determine), stated to have taken place between a princess of Ceylon and the Buddhist saint. This letter is very generally known and admired throughout Tibet, being introduced in every collection of epistolary forms for the instruction of youth.

Ratnávali's Letter to Shákya.

Mutig-chen (S. Ratnavali), a young princess of Ceylon, the daughter of the king of Singala, having been informed by some merchants of Central India (Madhyam) of Buddha and of his doctrine; she was much pleased with it; and, when those merchants returned home, she sent some presents to Chom-dan-das (Shakya), with a letter of the following contents:

द्वार्यात्म् स्वर्धः स्वर्यः स्वर्धः स्वर्धः स्वर्यः स्वर्धः स्वर्धः स्वर्धः स्वर्धः स्वर्यः स्वर्धः स्वर्यः स्वर्धः स्वर्यः स्वर्यः स्वर्यः स्वर्धः स्वर्यः
"Reverenced by the Suras, Asuras, and men; really delivered from birth, sickness, and fear; Lord! who art greatly celebrated by thy far-extending renown, from the Sage's am-

brosial portion, kindly grant me! (meaning religious instruction or wisdom)".

Shakya received this letter, and sent to the princess a picture of *Buddha* on cotton cloth, with some verses written above and below the image, containing the terms upon which refuge is obtained with *Buddha*, *Dharma*, and *Sangha*; and a few fundamental articles of the faith; together with two stanzas recommendatory of Buddhism. In a letter to the king of Singala, Shakya prescribes with what solemnity this image should be received, the letter perused, and made known in Ceylon.

The stanzas are these. See Dulva, vol. 5, leaf 30.

स्वानस्य वस्य न्त्रीत्य स्वीत् ॥ स्वानस्य वस्य स्वीत्य स्व स्वानस्य स्वानस

"Arise, commence a new course of life. Turn to the religion of Buddha. Conquer the host of the lord of death (the passions), that are like an elephant in this muddy house (the body), (or conquer your passions, like as an elephant subdues every thing under his feet in a muddy lake). Whoever has lived a pure or chaste life, according to the precepts of this Dulva, shall be free from transmigration, and shall put an end to all his miseries."

The compendium, or sum of the Buddhistic doctrine in one $sl\hat{o}ka$, runs thus:

द्वी:वःस्वरश्चरःक्वरःयःस्व। द्वी:वःस्वरश्चरःक्वेषःयःस्व। द्वी:वःस्वरश्चरःक्वेषःयःस्व। स्वायक्वरः "No vice is to be committed,

Virtue must perfectly be practised,—

Subdue entirely your thoughts.

This is the doctrine of Buddha."

No. VIII. Analysis of a Tibetan Medical Work.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. IV, p. 1 (1835).]

The principal work on medicine in Tibet is that entitled the "rGyud bZhi" (\$\frac{1}{2}573\) the tract in four parts). It is

attributed to SHA'KYA, though not introduced into the Kah-

quur or Stan-gyur collections.

When in Tibet I requested the Lama, my instructor in the language of the country, to give me an account of its contents, which he did in an abridged compilation divided, like the original, into four parts. The present translation of the Lama's manuscript may be interesting to those who are curious on the subject of Tibetan literature, and the state of medical practice in that remote part of the world. The materials of the original are as usual all derived from Sanskrit works, which have not however hitherto been made known in an English dress.

The following is the account given in the work itself of the manner in which this Treatise of Medicine found its way to Tibet.

In the time of Khri-srong Dehutsán (in the 8th or 9th century of the Christian era) a Tibetan interpreter Bairotsana (or Vairochana) having translated it in Cashmír, with

the assistance of a physician-pandit () TAKATAR - Davá

mNon-gah), presented it to the above-mentioned Tibetan-king. At that time it was received by "gyu-thog" a learned physician, and by several others, and afterwards it devolved successively to others till gyu-thog (the 13th in descent, from the first) styled the New gyuthog, to distinguish him from the former physician of the same name, who is called 'the ancient.' This physician much improved and propagated it; and at that time, it is stated, nine men became learned in medicine.

The Lama, who wrote me this extract, enumerated several works on medicine, current in Tibet, of which the most celebrated is a commentary on the present work, entitled "Baidurya Mon-po" (the lapis lazuli) written by "Sanga-rgyas rgya

mts'ho '' श्रेंश्रेर्शादश नुश नुंश के a regent at Lama about the

end of the 17th century.

The Lama states that there are about forty books or works written in Tibet, on medicine, besides the five volumes in the

Stan-gyur collection, and the scattered occasional instructions on medicaments in the Kah-gyur.

The chief medical school in Tibet is at Chak-phuri () , And a monastery at or near Lassa. There are also two others,

in middle Tibet, of some repute, called Chang-Zúr (55:35)

FIRST PART.

ਝੱਕਨੇ ਜੂਨ, rtsa-vahi-rgyut, the root or This is entitled basis of the (medical) tract. It is divided into six chapters.

First Chapter.

In this is described how CHOMDANDAS (SHAKYA) transforming himself into the shape of a chief physician, in a forest of medical plants, delivered his instructions, in a superb palace, in the presence of gods, sages (or Rishis), and a large train both of heretic and orthodox hearers.

Second Chapter.

He (Shakya) addressed his audience thus: - "Assembled friends! be it known to you, that every human creature who wishes to remain in health; and every man who desires to cure any disease, and to prolong life, must be instructed in the doctrine of medicine. Likewise, he that wishes for moral virtue, wealth, or happiness, and desires to be delivered from the miseries of sickness; as also, he that wishes to be honoured or respected by others, must be instructed in the art of healing." Then one

of the hermits or Rishis (55.35. Drang-Srong) expressing his desire of

promoting the well-being of others, requested his advice as to the manner in which he might become instructed in the doctrine of medicine. Then the teacher (SHAKYA) said (or commanded)": He must be instructed in the four parts of the medical science, which are the

root or theory, explication, instruction, and lastly manual operation; farther, he must be instructed in the eight branches of healing: viz. 1, the curing of the whole body; 2, of particular diseases incident to children; 3, to women; 4, the curing of diseases caused by evil spirits; 5, of wounds made by a knife, spear, &c.; 6, of all sorts of venomous or poisonous infections; 7, of the infirmities of old age; and 8, the increasing of virility in men. These are the principal divisions of the whole medical treatise.

The number of chapters in the four parts of this medical tract

amount to 156.

In the explanatory part, there are 11 places or sections, and 3! chapters; in the instructive part on cures or remedies for each specified disease, there are 15 circumstances and 92 chapters;—the last part has four divisions and 27 chapters.

Third Chapter.

The theory of the human constitution is illustrated by a similitude taken from the Indian fig-tree (ALS LASS) Thus, there are three

roots or trunks; thence arise nine stems; thence spread 47 boughs or branches; thence 224 leaves; two blossoms, and three fruits. The explication of the simile as applied to the states of the body. The single root or basis of diseases; the stems, branches, and leaves arising thence, taken or considered in a healthy and in a diseased state. Distinction: with respect to wind; ditto, with respect to hile; as also to phlegms their respective offices, operations or influences.

There are seven supports of the body on which life depends: the chyle, blood, flesh, fat, bone, marrow, and semen. Description of the three sorts of excretions or sordes of body, ordure, urine, and sweat.

The three generative causes of disease are: lust or ardent desire: passion or anger; dulness or ignorance. By the first is caused wind; by the 2nd, bile; by the last, phlegm. The accessory causes of disease are four: 1, season with respect to cold and heat; 2, any evil spirit; 3, wrong use of food; and 4, ill conduct of life.

The parts of the body, commonly subject to diseases, are six: the

skin, the flesh, the veins, the bones, the viscera, and the bowels.

The proper places of the three humours are: that of the phlegm in the upper parts of the body, as the proper place of dulness, in the brain or skull; that of the bile, in the middle part of the body, which is appropriate to anger; and the wind resides in the lower part of the trunk, in the waist and loins, as in its proper place.

There are 15 ways or channels through which disease spreads itself, The channels of the motion of wind are, the bones, the ear, skin, heart, artery, and the guts. The blood, sweat, the eye, the liver, the bowels, are the ways or vehicles of bile. The chyle, flesh and fat, marrow and semen, ordure and urine, the nose and the tongue, the lungs, the spleen, and the kidneys, the stomach, and the bladder, are the vehicles for the conveyance of the phlegmatic humour.

With respect to the three humours, this farther distinction is made: wind is predominant in the diseases of old people; bile, in those of

adolescents or youths; and phlegm, in children.

With respect to place (or part of the body); wind occurs in the cold parts of the body; bile in the dry and hot parts; phlegm abides in the

moist and unctuous parts.

The several seasons, in which the diseases caused by any of these three humours prevail, are thus stated: diseases, caused by wind, arise commonly during the summer season, before the dawn, and about midday. Those caused by bile, in autumn, about midday and midnight. Phlegm prevails during the spring season, and in the morning and evening.

There are specified nine sorts of diseases, in which there is no hope

of recovery.

On the 12 causes by which any of the diseases caused by any of the

three humours, is changed into another, as wind into bile and phlegm, etc.
All diseases are classed under two heads: heat and cold. Those, in which wind and phlegm prevail, being of natural water, belong to cold. Blood and bile, being of natural fire, belong to heat. The diseases caused by the worms and the serum, belong both to cold and heat.

Fourth Chapter. On the symptoms of diseases. On examining the

tongue and urine. On feeling the pulse. On asking (orally) after the circumstances, how the disease first arose, and its progress, -what pain

is felt, what sort of food has been useful or noxious?

Especially with respect to the tongue: If the tongue is red, dry, and rough, it is the sign of prevailing wind; if covered with a yellowish white thick substance, it is the sign of bile; if covered with a dim, white, soft, and moist substance, it is the sign of phlegm.

With respect to the urine: If the urine of the patient is blue, clear like spring-water, and has much spume or froth, it is the symptom of wind; if yellowish red and thick, steaming or vapouring greatly, and diffusing a smell, it is the sign of bile; if white, with little smell, and

steam or vapour, it is the sign of phlegm.

With respect to the pulse: When the physician feels the pulse, if beating greatly upwards it somewhat stops (if irregular), it is the sign of wind; a quick full beating is the sign of bile; a sunk, low, and soft beating is the sign of phlegm.

The physician's 29 questions to the patient about his food, exercise, and the pains or relief felt after having taken such and such a food, made

such and such an exertion, &c. are here detailed.

Fifth Chapter. On the means of curing diseases.

1. With respect to food:

The several sorts of flesh, grain, vegetables, and liquids employed successfully in curing diseases caused by wind. Specification of the several sorts of animal and vegetable food, and of soup and liquids or potions, by which bile is cured. Ditto of those that are good against phlegmatical diseases.

2. With respect to one's conduct of life or exercise.

It is good against wind to remain in warmth, and to have a compenion with whom one can best agree. Against bile: to remain in a cool and still place, or undisturbed. Against phlegm: to cease from exertion or business, and to remain in warmth.

3. With respect to medicaments to be used against these three hu-

mours.

Those against wind are of three different tastes: sweet, sour, and saline; and with respect to their efficacy, unctuous, heavy, and soft.

Those used against bile are, sweet, bitter, and nauseous bitter:—their

efficacy; coolness, thinness, and dulness, or bluntness.

Those used against phlegm are, hot, sour and scrid;—their efficacy:

sharpness, roughness, and lightness.

Mixtures of medicaments with respect to their tastes; for assuaging pains, and for carrying off diseases, or for purging.

1. Assuaging medicaments:

Against windy diseases: soup, and medical butter (a kind of sirup). Against bile: liquid medicine and powder.

Against phlegm: pills and powdered medicine (aromatics?). The several kinds of soup are : of bones, flesh, butter, molasses; of

wine, &c. There are specified five kinds of sirup, according to the different principal ingredients, their several applications and effects.

2. Depuratory or purging medicaments. In windy diseases: a gentle depuratory medicament.

In bitious diseases : a purging physic.
In phiegmatic diseases : emetics.

With respect to the first there are specified three sorts of depuratory medicaments, the purging medicaments are of four kinds, the emetics are of two sorts.

With respect to physical (or chirurgical) operation, against wind: the smearing of the body with butter, &c. and contarising in the Hor (or Turkish) manner. Against bile: phlebotomy, and cold water (or bething in ditto). Against phiogm: warm applications, and cauterising.

Specifications of the several kinds of cures against wind, bile, and

phlegm. They amount to 98 (compared to so many leaves). If the physician is skilful and diligent in his application, and the patient obedient and respectful, so will the latter soon be delivered from disease.

Sixth Chapter. Recapitulation of the three last chapters. According to the former metaphor or allegory of the Indian fig tree, there are three roots (or trunks): 1, the root, place, or ground of the disease; 2, that of the symptoms, and 3, that of the manner of curing.

There arise from the first trunk (or root) two stems: that of the un-

changed state of the body, and that of the changed or diseased state of

From the 2nd trunk (or root) there arise three stem, namely: those of looking on, feeling and asking (or of inspection of the tongue and urine; of the feeling of the pulse; and of asking after the circumstances of the disease).

On the 3rd trunk there arise four stems: those of the food; of the manner of living or conduct of life; of the medicaments used; and of the operations performed. Therefore, from the three trunks (or roots) there

arise nine stems.

The number of the boughs or branches:

Those branching from the stem of the unchanged body are: disease,

the seven supports of the body, and the fæces.

On the stem denoting the changed or diseased state of the body. there are the following 9 boughs: cause of disease, accessory causes, beginning or injured parts, place, way, time of arising (or of the fit). fruit or consequence, causes of transition from one into another disease; the reduction of all diseases to heat and cold.

On the stem denoting the symptoms of diseases, there arise the following eight boughs: 2 of inspecting the tongue and urine. Of feeling the pulse, there are 3: wind-pulse, bile-pulse, and phlegm-pulse. And in asking after the circumstances of the disease, there are 3.

Altogether eight.

On the stem denoting the manner of curing, there arise the following boughs or branches; 3 of food or mest; 3 of drink or potion; 3 of the manner of living or of the conduct of life; 6 of physic with respect to taste and efficacy; 6 of the assuaging mixtures with respect to taste and efficacy; 3 of depuratory physic. There are also 3 boughs of medical (or chirurgical) operations. Thus in all there are 47-boughs or branches.

The number of leaves (or of leafy branches) issuing from the 47 boughs:

1st. On the top of the unchanged stem, the enumeration of 25 discases.

2nd. On the top of the stem denoting the changed or diseased state of the body, 63 symptoms or tokens of indisposition.

3rd. On the top of the stem of inspection (or examination of the

tongue and urine), 6 branches or leaves of inspection. 4th. On the top of the stem of feeling, three sorts of pulse (or three

manners of beating of the pulse). 5th. On the top of the stem of asking the patient about the circum-

stances of the disease, 29 questions.

On the top of the stem denoting the food (diet, meat, and drink or potion) of the patient there are the enumeration of such, as:

7th. On the top of the stem of the conduct of life, 6

8th. On the top of the stem of physic nine tastes and efficacies are enumerated, together 18; 3 kinds of soup or broth; 5 kinds of medical butter or sirup; 4 kinds of potions; 4 kinds of powders; 4 kinds of pills; 5 kinds of powdered aromatics; 9 sorts of depuratory application. Total = 50 kinds of physic.

9th. On the top of physical (or chirurgical) operations, 7 leafy

branches.

A summary exhibition of the above specified leaves:

1. On the trunk denoting the place and ground of diseases, there are 188 leaves.

2. On that denoting the symptoms, 38.

On that denoting the manner of curing, there are 98 leaves. Altogether making 224.

There are two blossoms: health and a long life.

There are three fruits: moral perfection (or good morals), wealth,

These are the contents of the six chapters of the first part of this medical tract.

SECOND PART.

There are four things to be treated of in the doctrine of curing or healing: 1, What is to be cured or healed? 2, With what is it to be cured? 3. In what manner is it to be cured? 4. By whom is it to be cured?

1st Chapter.—With respect to the first question, What is to be cured? the answer is: the disease in the human body. 2, By what means: By diet or regular food, exercise, medicament, and by chirurgical operation. 3, In what manner is it to be cured ?-so that the patient recovering from his sickness, may remain long alive. To this place belongs the examination of the symptoms, the rules of curing, and the manner in which the cure is performed. The contents of this part of the treatise are reduced to four roots, and to 11 branches or minor parts.

2nd Chapter.—Cure is ordained for the well-being of the body. The origin or generation of the body. Cause, and accessory causes thereof.

Tokens or signs of birth.

The cause of the generation of the body is stated to be: the father's seed, the mother's blood, and the arising of consciousness. If the first be predominant, there will be born a son; if the second, a daughter; if both are equal, then a hermaphrodite. Should it happen that the blood be formed into two masses, then twins will be born.

Out of the semen are formed: the bone, the brain, and the skeleton of the body. Out of the mother's blood are generated the flesh, blood, heart, with the other four vital parts (lungs, liver, spleen, kidneys,) and the six vessels or veins. From the soul or vital principle arises conscious-

ness through the several organs.

After the body has been thus conceived, the cause of its increase is in the two veins on the right and left sides of the womb, in the small vessel containing the mother's blood for menstruation, and in the chyle formed from the mother's food, which successively descending into the womb, concurs to the coagulation or union of the semen, blood, and the vital principle, and to their increase, in the same manner, as water is conveyed, by certain canals, from a watering pond, to a field, for the production of corn.

The body, by the agitation of the (inward) air, being changed dur-

ing 38 weeks, goes on continually increasing, for nine months.

The continual increase of the fœtus, or embryo, is thus: In the 1st week, it is like a mixture of milk and blood. In the 2nd week, growing somewhat thick, it is of a ropy or tenacious nature. In the 3rd week. it becomes like curds. In the 4th week, from the form, which the embryo takes, is conjectured whether it will be a son, daughter, or hermaphrodite. In the 1st month, the mother suffers both in her body and mind several disagreeable sensations.

In the 2nd month, in the 5th week, the navel of the body is first

formed. In the 6th week, the vital vein (or artery), depending on the navel. In the 7th week, the forms of both eyes appear. In the 8th week, in consequence of the forms of the eyes the form of the head arises. In the 9th week, the shape of the upper and lower parts of the trunk or body is formed.

• In the 3rd month, in the 10th week, the forms of the two arms and sides (or hips) appear. In the 11th week, the forms of the holes of the nine organs become perceptible. In the 12th week, the five vital parts • (heart, lungs, liver, spleen, veins) are formed. In the 13th week, those

of the six vessels.

In the 4th month, in the 14th week, the marrows in the arms and thighs are formed. In the 15th week, the wrists of the hands and the legs of the feet are perceptible. In the 16th week, the 10 fingers and the 10 toes become visible. In the 17th week, the veins or nerves, connecting the outer and inner parts, are formed.

In the 5th month, in the 18th week, the flesh and fat are formed. In the 19th week, the tendons or sinews and the fibres are formed. In the 20th week, the bone and the marrow of the feet are formed. In the

21st week, the body is covered with a skin.

In the 6th month, in the 22nd week, the nine holes of the organs are opened. In the 23rd week, the hair on the head and on the body, and the nails commence to grow. In the 24th week, the viscora and vessels become entirely finished; and then pleasure and pain is felt. In the 25th week, circulation or motion of air or wind commences. In the 26th week, the memory of the mind begins to be clear.

In the 7th month, the 27th to the 30th week, the whole body comes

to entire perfection, or is completely formed.

In the 8th month, from 31st to 35th week, the whole body, both

within or without, greatly increases.

In the 9th month, in the 36th week, there arises a disagreeable sensation in the womb. In the 37th week, there arises a nauseous sensation. In the 38th week, the head turning to the entrance of the womb, the birth takes place. But, though the months are completed, yet, on account of the mother's menstruation, and of wind, birth may for some time be delayed.

Farther it is stated, that if the right side (of the pregnant woman) is high, and the body light, there will be born a son; if the left side is high, and the body heavy, then a daughter; if they both are in an equal state, an hermaphrodite. And if the middle or both the sides are high,

then twins will be born.

The tokens and circumstances of approaching birth are then des-

cribed.

(This may be seen at large, in the Kah-gyur, in the work entitled 542.4 (A.Gah-vo m, Mal h, jug') Nanda entering into

the womb.)

3rd Chapter.—The several members of the body are likened to cer-

tain things, 32 in number.

The manner of the existence of the body, under four distinct heads:

1. The quantity (in measure or weight) of the several constituent parts of the body, and the manner of existence of those parts on which the body depends.

2. The state of the veins and nerves.

3. On the nature of diseases, the enemies of the body.

4. The holes or openings for the circulation of the air, &c.

With respect to the lst:

1. The quantity of the wind or air (in the body) is equal to one full bladder: that of the bile to the quantity of ordure once discharged; that of the phlegm -to one's three two-handfuls (the two hands three times full); that of the blood and ordure to seven ditto; that of the urine and serum to four ditto; that of the grease and fat to two ditto;

that of the chyle and the semen to one handful; that of the brain to a single handful; that of the flesh = 500 handfuls; (one handful being as much as can be enclosed once in a single hand). Women have an excess

of 20 more on account of their thighs and breasts.

There are 23 sorts of hones; in the back-bone, 28 are distinguished.

There are 23 sorts of hones; in the back-bone, 28 are distinguished.

There are 24 ribs; 32 teeth; 360 pieces of bones. There are 12 target joints of limbs;—small joints, 250. There are 16 tendons or sinews, and 900 nerves or fibres; 11,000 hairs on the head; 11 millions of perest of the bair on the body. There are five vital parts (or viscers) (as the heart, lungs, liver, spleen, and the reins or kidneys); six vessels, and nine openings or holes.—In Jambudwipa the measure of a man's height is one father or four subits—deformed hodges have only 21 subits. is one fathom or four cubits—deformed bodies have only 34 cubits, measured by their own.

With respect to the 2nd section, showing the state of the veins. There are four kinds of veins or nerves : 1, that of conception ; 2, of

sensation; 3, of connexion, and 4, that of witality.

The 1st: From the navel there arise or spread three veins or nerves, one of them ascends to the brain, and is seted on by the dull part of it, generating the phlegm in the upper part of his body. Another nerve (or vein) entering into the middle, forms the vital nerve and depends for its existence on the vital nerve of passion and traced that part of it, which causes bile, resides in the middle. The third nerve (or vein) descends to the privy parts, and generates desire both in the male and female. That part of it, which produces wind, resides in the lower extremity.

The 2nd : There are four kinds of the nerves of existence or sensa-

For rousing (or exciting) the organs, in their proper place, there is in the brain a principal nerve, surrounded with 500 other smaller ones. Another nerve for making clear the organ of recollection or memory, resides in the heart, surrounded with 500 other smaller ones.

That nerve, which causes the increase and renovation of the aggregate of the body, resides in the navel, surrounded with 500 other smaller ones.

That nerve, which causes the increase of children, and descendants, resides in the privy member, together with 500 other smaller ones-and

comprehends or encompasses the whole body.

The 3rd: The nerve of connexion consists of two kinds, white and There are 24 large veins (or nerves), which, like as so many branches ascending the principal stem of the vital principle, serve for increasing the flesh and the blood. There are eight large hidden veins or nerves for making the connexion of the diseases of the viscers and vessels.

There are 16 conspicuous veins connecting the outward limbs, and bleeding veins (that 77 others spreading from them, called 353

may occasionally be opened to let out blood).

There are 112 hurtful or pestilential veins (or nerves); of a mixed nature, there are 189 others. Thence originate 120 in the outer, inner, and middle parts, that spread into 360 smaller ones. Thence smaller ones encompass the body as with a net-work.

There are 19 strong working nerves, which, like roots, descend from the brain, the ocean of nerves; from among them there are 13 that are hidden, and connect the intestines—six others, connecting the outward

parts, are visible; from them spread 16 small tendons or sinews.

There are three vital nerves (or veins) in a man. The one encompasses both the head and the body; the second, associating with respiration, moves accordingly; the third is the principal, and connecting the veins or canals, for the circulation of air and blood, is occupied with generating or increasing the body, and being the vital nerve, is called, by way of eminence, the artery or the principal vital nerve.

With respect to the third point:

Diseases of consequence happen in the flesh, fat, bone, tendons,

nerve, intestines, and veins.

Such diseases are counted in the flesh, 45; in the fat, 8; in the bone, 323 in the tendons or sinews, 14; in the intestines, 13; in the veins, 190. On the head, there are 62; on the neck, 33; in the trunk of the body. 95; in the four hanging members (two hands, two feet), 112. Thus important diseases are reckoned 302, of which 96 are said to be very dangerous, which cannot be cured by any expence or skill. There are 49 that are dangerous in a middle degree, but which may be cured by learned physicians. The rest may be cured by others also; since they are of no great consequence, though they also be reckoned among discases of magnitude.

With respect to the fourth point:

Of the several orifices or passages for the conveyance of air, blood, drink, and food, both within and without, are enumerated 13 in males,

and 16 in females.

Through inconvenient food and exercise, these passages being hurt, there arises a distemper of the body, by the humours being either too much increased, issued, or hindered; or by taking wrong direction, confusion is produced. When the passages are clean, and free from any

hurt, then the body is in a healthy state.

5th Chapter.—Characteristic description of the body. There is a two-fold division: 1. Those parts which are subject to injury (the body).

2. Those things by which they are injured (bad humours or diseases).

First, of those that are subject to injury. These are thus distinguished: the supports (or those parts which keep the body together), seven in number; as, the chyle, blood, flesh, fat, bone, marrow, and semen.

Excrements, as ordure, urine, and sweat; also the dirt of the teeth, and under the reliable and the impurity issuing from other commings or presented. under the nails, and the impurity issuing from other openings or passages.

latly. The office of the seven supports of the body, and of the three

excrements, is thus described:

The meat and drink, after being digested in the stomach, are changed into chyle and feces. These turn into ordure and urine, that is, for the nutrition of the body, by increasing the blood. The blood preserving the moisture or humidity of the body, keeps up life, and increases the flesh. The flesh covering and cleansing the body, both within and without, produces the fat. This makes the whole body unctuous, and causes the increases of the base of the b the increase of the bone. This supports the body and increases the marrow. This improves the essential sap of the body, and produces the semen virile. This conduces to the well-being of the whole body, and to the production of a new one.

The service, rendered by the freces, is: the ord/re serves for the support of the bowels, guts, &c. By urine, morbid humours are carried off; and it serves also for a support of the thinner faces, and carries off the

putrid thick sediment.

The office of sweat is to soften the skin, and to change the obstruct-

ed pores of the hair of the body.

\$1.55 is the common gentle warmth, or heat, of Fire-warm

the whole body. The warmth of the stomach is the principal cause of the digestion of meat and drink of every kind. If this warmth is in good state, the digestion of meat and drink is easy; no diseases then arise, the lustre of the face, the chyle, the supports of the body and life, then increase. Therefore, the warmth of the stomach must be sept up (or if

lost, must be restored), with every endeavour.

The manner in which meat and drink are changed. Whatever is eaten or drunk, is carried into the belly or stomach, by the vital air or wind; afterwards, by the aid of phiegm, it comes into fermentation of a



sweet taste, and increases the quantity of phlegm. Afterwards, being digested by the aid of bile, taking a hot and sour taste, it produces bile. Afterwards, by the aid of the air or wind that conveys an equal heat to the whole body, the dregs or fæces being separated, and taking a bitter taste, it generates thin wind. The fæces being changed into thick for solid) and thin (or fluid) parts, become ordure and urine.

The chyle, after having passed by nine veins from the stomach into the liver, it becomes or changes into blood; afterwards, successively, it is transformed into flesh, and the seven supports of the body.

These are three : wind, 2ndly. The hurtful things or bad humours.

bile, and phlegm, each with a five-fold division.

1. Of Wind. The life-keeping wind or air resides in the upper part of the head; that which operates upwards, has its place in the breast; that which pervades or encompasses all, resides in the heart; that which communicates or conveys an equal heat to the body, has its seat in the stomach; that which cleanses downwards, abides in the lower part of the trunk.

2. Of Bile. The digesting bile resides in the stomach, between the digested and indigested part; that which forms the chyle, resides in the liver; that which prepares or increases, in the heart; that which assist the sight (or causes to see), in the eye; that which gives a clear colour

resides in the skin.

3. Of Phlegm. The supporting phlegm resides in the breast; the masticatory, in the indigested part; the tasting, on the tongue; the refreshing (or that makes contented), in the head; the conjunctive or uniting, resides in every juncture (or joint).

The characteristic signs of the above-specified humours—that of wind; roughness, lightness, cold, smallness, hardness, and mobility.

That of bile; unctuousness, sharpness, lightness, foulness, depuratory moisture.

That of phlegm: unctuousness, coolness, heaviness, and dulness, soft-

ness, or gentleness, steadiness, adhesion, passionateness.

These are the 6th Chapter.—On the works or action of the body. body, the speech, and the mind. Virtue, vice, and undetermined cases. The five organs occupy their own place. The body is divided into basis (ground or support), age, nature (or constitution), division of diseases. The basis has a triple division. Age also has the same number; that of nature or native disposition, has seven. With respect to disease, the distinctions are : indisposition and absence of morbid state.

7th Chapter.—On the tokens of destruction (or approaching death) of the body: 1. Tokens of a far distant death. 2. Ditto of a near one. 3. Uncertain, and 4, Certain tokens of death. Distant tokens are: any envoy (of death), dream, and change (by age), &c.; the near tokens are distinguished into near and very near. Uncertain tokens; as, when after recovering from a sickness, one may live yet many years. Certain

tokens, as, when the disease is incurable.

A physician should be well acquainted with the tokens of death; that he may know whether the patient be curable or incurable, and to

perform his medical service accordingly.

8th Chapter.—On the increasing and decreasing state of sickness. Here is treated of the causes and accessory causes of the disease; the manner of its origin; the diseased part; the character and distinctions of the importance of each.

First. The causes are proximate, and remote.

9th Chapter.—There are three accessory causes that depend on the primary causes: the originating and spreading, the gathering together and arising; and the taking away of the disease.

10th Chapter.—On the manner in which any disease takes place in

the body.

11th Chapter.—On the character of diseases; as, an increasing, diminishing, and a perplexed, disease. The causes of which are to be sought in the too great or too small quantity of the three humours, of

the seven supports of the body, and of the fæces.

12th Chapter.—Division of diseases; with respect to the cause, the individual, and the kind of disease. With respect to the cause: this is attributed to the vicious three humours of this life; to the consequence of immoral actions in former generations or lives, and to a mixture of both. With respect to the individuals: they are, man. woman, child, old persons; and men of every description. The several diseases peculiar to each are enumerated. The number of the kinds of the common diseases is stated to be 404, which are divided or distinguished out of several respects. As with respect to the vicious humours, principal humour, place or injured part, and the kind of disease, 42 belong to wind, 26 to bile, 33 to phlegm. Thus with respect to the humours, 101 divisions are made, and so on; with respect to the other points also, many distinctions or classifications are enumerated, each amounting to 101.

13th Chapter. - With respect to the conduct. What course of life is to be taken (to be free from disease): 1. continually, 2, at certain periods, and 3, occasionally, or as circumstances may require. first are treated in the next two chapters: 1, continually to be done are: wordly affairs and religious exercises or occupations; first, the leaving off every immoral action committed by the body, speech, and the mind; and the doing of such things as are agreeable to these, in every circumstance of life: as in eating, walking, sitting, mounting a horse, sleeping,

&c.

2. Religious occupations are the exercise of moral virtues, and the

desisting from the ten immoral actions.

14th Chapter .- On the periodical conduct of life, according to the different seasons (as the first and last part of winter, the spring, the hot season, summer, and autumn:) with respect to diet, exercise, medicine,

and chirurgical operations.

15th Chapter.—On the circumstantial conduct of life, with respect to several cases, teaching that, one should not obstruct hunger and thirst (or abstain from meat and drink); not hinder yawning or gaping, sneezing, breathing, coughing (or ejecting phlegm), spitting, sleeping, nor any of the natural discharges, since the obstruction or hindrance of them may give rise to any disease, of which several cases or examples are enumerated.

16th Chapter.—The manner of using mest and drink: 1. The several kinds of food, and the manner of using them. 2. Several kinds of food that do not agree, and therefore may not be used together. 3. Tempera-

ture to be observed.

For food are used, grain (or corn), flesh, butter, vegetables or greens, and dressed victuals. There are two kinds of grain: 1, growing in ears, and 2, in pods (as pulse). Flesh or animal food of eight kinds or sorts. Several kinds of unctuous or oily substances; as, butter, oil expressed from grains, kernels, fruits, berries, and trees or shrubs; grease, fat, marrow, &c. To vegetable of green things belong potherbs, &c. To dressed victuals or meals belong boiled rice, soup, &c. Drinkable things are milk, water, wine, &c.
17th Chapter.—Enumeration of several kinds of food that it were

dangerous to take together; as, fish and milk, &c.

18th Chapter.—On the proper measure of food to be taken, or on

temperance in meat and drink.

19th Chapter.—On pharmacy, or the preparing of medicaments for healing any disease. Taste of medicament, efficacy, digestive quality, mode of composing, &c., appropriate to any specified disease,

20th Chapter.—On materia medica, the efficacy of every simple medicament. The materials for medicament are: precious and natural stones, earths, woods, vegetables, and those obtained from animals. In the text, and in another quoted work, 915 articles are enumerated, and stated of each to what disease it may be applied especially, as a remedy.

21st Chapter. Specification of the classes of medicaments; their preparation and application to specified diseases.

22nd Chapter.—On the five sorts of (chirurgical) instruments, exa-

ployed in trying or sounding any disease, in cutting, &co. 22rd Chapter.—That one may remain in health and case, rules are

prescribed to be observed. 24th Chapter.—Discrimination of the humours as the cause of any

inward or outward disease.

25th Chapter. - When the former are insufficient, it is taught, to seek it in the vicious inclination of the mind.

26th Chapter.—To exhibit medical help, when the disease may be

healed; and to give it up, when it cannot be cured.

27th Chapter. On the manner of curing diseases. How? by whom? with what ? The measure or length of time of curing.

28th Chapter. Detailed description of the curing of diseases.

29th Chapter.—Common and peculiar mode of ouring diseases.
30th Chapter.—How to cure wind, bile, phlegm, is separately exposed

31st Chapter. - The requisite qualities in a physician, that he should or taught. be well acquainted with the theory and practice of medicine; and be an impartial, upright, good-hearted man.

THIRD PART.

Containing a full explanation of Diseases.

Chapter 1. Exhortation to the teacher (SHAKYA) to deliver a treaor oral instruction on the manner of curing diseases.

The curing of diseases arising from wind (or windy humours). There are five distinctions: 1, causes; 2, accessory cause and effect; 3, division; 4, symptoms; 5, manner of curing (diseases arising from wind).

3. In the curing of diseases arising from (or caused by) bile, there are the following distinctions: 1, cause; 2, accessory cause and effect: 3. division; 4, symptoms; 5, manner of curing; and 6, stopping or hindering

4. In the curing of diseases caused by phlegm (or phlegmatical its progress. humours), are considered; cause, accessory cause and effect, division,

symptoms, and manner of curing.

5. In the curing of diseases caused by the gathering of the three humours (wind, bile, phlegm), and of blood, there are the following distinctions or considerations : cause, incident or accessory cause and effect, place, time, kind or genus, symptoms, manner or mode of curing, and the stopping of it for the future.

In the curing of indigestion, the root (or primary cause) of inward diseases, there are the following distinctions or sections : cause, incident or accessory cause and effect, manner of its arising, division,

symptoms, remedy or mode of curing.

7. In the curing of a swelling (or a hard conglomeration or excrescence), there is treated of: cause, incident, division, place, manner of arising, symptom, mode of curing it.

The curing of white swellings, a kind of dropsy. Here are con-

sidered : cause, incident, division, symptom, mode of curing.

9. In the curing of enother kind of dropsy (\$5.55) there

are the same distinctions as before.

- 10. The curing of dropsy is taught, by expossing the cause and incident, division, manner of arising, symptom, mode of curing, stopping or committeen.
 - 11. In the caring of phithisis or consumption of the lungs,

3. 35 7 25 ST there are the following distinctions: cause, and

someony cause or effect, division, symptom, mode of curing. And thus

there are six chapters on curing inward diseases. there are the following distinctions: cause and incident, nature, name, symptom, mode of curing.

13, 14. Farther explanations on the causes of the heat and cold, in

15. In the curing of a fever, in its beginning, or where heat has not yet taken the upper hand, there are enumerated the following distinct tions: cause and incident, nature, name, division, symptom, mode of

In an increased or burning fever, the same distinctions are as

before, except a trifling division.

17 to 20. On curing several kinds of fever, such as are: the sly,

hidden, inveterate, and the mixed ones.

21. The curing of inflammation of any hurt or wounded part of the body, with several distinctions; and that of inward and outward hurt: the inwards are, the viscera and the vesseis; the outward parts are, the flesh, bone, marrow, tendon, and fibre.

22. The curing of heat or fever (arising from the contest between wind, bile, and phlegm), in which the mental faculties are troubled, with several distinctions to be considered; and so there are 11 chapters on

curing fever (heat and inflammation).

23. On curing epidemic maladies or infectious diseases, with several distinctions and divisions; as, ARTAT a kind of pestilence of Nepál.

On curing the small-pox: cause and effect, definition of smalloox, distinction, symptom, mode of curing; distinction into white and black variols, each having three species.

25. The curing of infectious diseases affecting the bowels (colic), with several distinctions; purging the viscers and the lower vessels, affecting with greater or less vehemence; and so there are eight kinds of diseases

affecting the bowels.

26. The curing of swellings in the throat (or of ulcers and inflam-

mations), and infective diseases, as the cholera, नाना राष्ट्राच्या रा

first has 4, the second 11, subdivisions, or minor distinctions.

With respect to catarrh, are considered: cause and incident, kind, symptom, mode of curing. And so are five chapters on infectious

diseases, ZANAC to which belongs the cholera morbus also,

28. In curing the upper part of the body, the head occurres the first place. Here are considered: cause, circumstantial accident, distinction, symptom, mode of curing. There are eight distinctions, as wind, &c.

29. In curing the diseases of the eyes, are considered : tause, inci-

dent, division, symptom, mode of curing, with 33 distinctions of opthalmic diseases.

30. Diseases of the ear; cause and incident, or accessory cause and effect, division or distinction, symptom, mode of curing. Distinction into disease of the ear, and deafness; that has six, this four, kinds.

31. Diseases of the nose: cause and incident, division, symptom,

mode of curing; there are five divisions or distinctions.

32. In the curing of the diseases of the mouth, there are to be considered: cause and incidents, division, symptom, mode of curing. There is a six-fold division; as, the lip, the gum, &c. There are several distinctions of diseases, as six of the teeth; five of the tongue; six of the palate, and seven of the throat.

33. In curing the diseases of goitre or swelling in the fore-part of the neck, are considered: cause and incident (or accessory causes), distinction, symptom, cure or remedy. There are eight sorts of goitre, as those arising from wind, bile, &c. Thus six chapters are on curing dis-

eases in the upper part of the body.

Now follows the curing of diseases affecting the viscera, and the en-

trails or vessels.

34. In curing the diseases of the heart, there is treated of: cause and incident, division, symptom, and remedy. There are seven distinction of diseases in the heart; as the throbbing or palpitation of the heart

35. In curing the diseases of the lungs are considered: cause, division, symptom, remedy. There are eight distinctions of diseases.

36. In curing the diseases of the liver, are treated of : cause, divi-

sion, symptom, remedy. There are 18 distinctions of diseases.

37. In curing the diseases of the spleen or milt, four things come into consideration. There are five kinds of diseases, as inflammation, &c.

38. In curing the diseases of the reins or kidneys, there are four considerations, with seven kinds of diseases; as wind in the reins, &c.

39. In curing the diseases of the stomach, or the pit of the stomach, there are likewise four things to be previously considered. And first, 16 kinds of diseases as best gold for and seein five kinds as wind for

kinds of diseases, as heat, cold, &c., and again five kinds, as wind, &c. 40. In curing the diseases of the intestines or bowels are considered four things, as cause, &c. with the distinction of five kinds of diseases.

41. In the curing of the gut of the entrails or bowels, are considered: symptom and remedy, with five distinctions of diseases; as cold, puffing up, &c. Thus eight chapters are on curing the diseases of the viscera

and vessels 59351

Diseases of the privy parts.

42, 43. In these two chapters for male and female cases are considered: cause, &c. four, with nine and five distinctions of disease respectively.

This class of disorders is called TRICAS (secret disease).

The curing of little diseases (\$7.95)

44. In the curing of hoarseness, or difficulty of using the voice, are considered: cause, incident, &c. four, with seven distinctions of diseases: as wind, &c.

45. In curing aversion from food, or restoring the loss of appetite

মান্ত্রাম there are considered: cause, &c. four; with four dis-

tinctions of that disease.

46. In curing the distemper of continual thirst, are considered: cause and incident, etc. four, with five kinds of that distemper; as wind, bile, etc.

47. In the curing of the hiccup, the disease of yexing (convulsion of the stomach भूग १५६३), are considered: cause and accident,

&c. four, with five distinctions of that distemper; as from meat or food, &c.

48. The curing of the difficulty of breathing: cause, &c. four; with five minor distinctions.

49. The curing of a sudden colic, (ALTIN, a distemper of the

bowels), are considered: cause and accident, &c. four; with three principal, and eleven minor, kinds of that distemper; besides some others that are enumerated, as heat and cold; worms and phlegm, &c.

50. The curing of diseases arising from worms (in the belly or bowels:) and insects, are considered: cause and accidents. &c. four, with two distinctions inward and outward worms or insects; as belly worms, lice, and nits.

51. In curing vomiting, are considered: cause and accidents, &c. four, with four distinctions of that distemper, as wind, &c.

52. In curing purging diseases (or dysentery), are considered: cause,

&c. four, with four distinctions of that distemper, &c.
53. The curing of obstruction of stools, or of evacuation, four things to be considered, and five kinds of that distemper are enumerat-

54. In curing dysury (or difficulty of making urine), is treated of the cause and accidents, &c. four, with several distinctions of the kinds of that distemper.

55. In curing the frequent discharge of urine; cause, &c. four, with the three kinds of that distemper, arising from phlegm, bile, and wind;

phlegm has again 10 distinctions.

56. In curing the disease called the "Indian heat" (very dangerous to Tibetans, by causing excessive heat and frequent evacuations, of which many die who visit India), are considered: cause, &c. four, with four distinct divisions of that distemper.

57. In curing the swelling or enlargement of the feet, are considered:

cause, &c. four, with four distinctions of that disease.

58. In curing the gout 333 are considered: cause, &c. four, with

six distinctions of that painful distemper.

59. In the curing of diseases arising from the serum or watery parts of the blood (STX yellow water, bad or corrupt humours), are

considered: the manner of its origin, its division, symptom, mode of curing, with several distinctions.

60. The curing of the disease called "the white vein," 35775

with several divisions and distinctions.

61. The curing of cutaneous diseases. Of these there are several divisions and distinctions.

62. The curing of miscellaneous diseases of the smaller kind : such as contraction or sinking of the sinews; dysentery; vomiting; any hurt caused by fire; hurt or wound made with a needle; or when a needle or the iron-point of an arrow happen to be swallowed; choaking or suffocation; on the stopping of any thing in the throat, as, a beard of corn, bone, fish-prickle; the entering or swallowing in of a spider or secretion; intoxication; stiffness of the neck; ill smell of the body; hurt of the hands and feet caused by cold and snow; the creeping of any insect into the ear; the swelling of the teat of a woman. The curing of all such diseases is called the cure of small diseases. Thus there are 19 chapters on minute diseases.

The healing of wounds, sores, or ulcers.

The curing of ulcers (25%) here are considered: cause, &c.

four, with several distinctions.

- 64. The curing of the hemorrhoids (piles or emerods in the fundament, 되어도 직접): cause, &c. four, with six distinctions.
- The curing of St. Anthony's fire (any swelling full of heat and redness, 5,550); cause, &c. four, with several distinctions, and the places (or parts) where generally they occur.
 - The curing of the Surya disease (\$1 W2 35) affecting

the lungs, liver, &c. its beginning, &c. four, with some distinctions.

67. The curing of cancerous or virulent bad sores or ulcers: cause,

&c. four, with eight distinctions.

cause, &c. four, with six distinctions.

69. The curing of a disease in the foot and thigh, called Kangbam, (নাম্ব্রস), or enlarging and corruption of the feet, &c., a painful disease in the bones, accompanied with inflammation, and blue colour

of the skin: cause, &c. four, with several distinctions. 70. The ouring of the ulceration in the perineum: cause, &c. four,

with some distinctions.

71. The curing of diseases incident to infant children, with the description of several superstitions customs or practices which are performed at the high of a child, as examination of the time at which it was born, whether it is husky or unlucky; importing of the benediction: the cutting of the umbilical cord; the making it live long; the making it suck, the time, &c. &c.

72. The enumeration of several diseases common to infants and

children; cause, &c. four, and the mode of curing them.

78. The ouring of diseases caused by any (supposed) evil spirit, 12 kinds of such diseases : symptoms, and remedy.

Thus three chapters are devoted to the diseases of infant children. Then follow, on caring diseases of the female sex. These distempers

are thus distinguished: general, peculiar, and vulgar, or common.

74. On ouring the diseases of the female sex; in general, are considered : cause, &c. four, with two distinctions, originating in the blood and wind. THE STATE OF SECURITY OF STATE

75. The curing of the particular diseases of women: cause, &c. four, with many distinctions; as with respect to the several humours, of which they arise.

76. The curing of the common or vulgar diseases of women, with the circumstances of child-birth.

• On curing diseases caused by evil sprits.

77. The curing of diseases caused by a ghost (or evil spirit), of which there are 18 kinds enumerated, from among the Suras and Asuras. Here are considered: cause and incident, division, symptom, and remedy.

The curing of insanity or madness: cause, &c. four, with seven 78.

distinctions, as it is caused by wind, bile, &c

79. The ouring of a kind of insanity called "forgetfulness" (lunacy?),

enumeration of its several kinds, the symptoms, and the remedies.

The curing of palsical diseases, and the telling of the periodical time of their occurrence, the symptoms, and the remedies for preventing their recourse.

81. On the curing of diseases, in which the body is infested with cancerous ulcers, is eaten away and dissolved : considered cause, &c. nine, with 18 distinctions respecting its different kinds, and the places (or parts) which are generally affected.

The above five chapters are on such diseases as are supposed to be

caused by the influence of some malignant demon.

On the curing or healing, in general, of wounds, made by any kind of weapon or tool. Here into consideration come; 1, cause; 2, accessory cause or incident; 3, nature (of wound); 4, definition or description (of the wound); 5, its name; 6, place; 7, division; 8, symptom, mode of curing or remedy, excision or cutting out, cicatrizing.

83. The curing of wounds on the head, here are considered: the manner of its being, examination of the injured part, manner of curing,

recovering, or being overpowered.

84. The curing of wounds on the neck or throat, where the bone. vein, or nerve, and the tendon or sinew come into consideration.

85. The curing of wounds on the upper and lower parts of the thumb of the body; manner or that of being; symptom, remedy, heals

86, The curing of wounds of the hanging members (arms and legs), the knowing the importance or consequence of, &c. symptoms in general.

mode of curing, or restoration.

Thus four chapters were on curing wounds; henceforth the curing of

poison, or the remedies against poisoning.

87. The curing of injuries caused by artificial or prepared poison. Here are considered: the kind of poison, entrance or infection; quality, the manner of its spreading or prevalence; remedies employed, final cessa-

The curing of simple poison, and of poison in the flesh. With respect to the first : cause, symptom, remedy; in the second case, two

points more come in consideration.

89. The curing of real or material poison. Two osces; 1, spreading; and 2, not spreading.

These three chapters were on curing injuries caused by poison.

20. On ouring the weakness of old age, or procuring strength to men. Emoluments, place, recourse to, remedy,

91, 92. On the means of increasing the power or vigour in men. Here ends the summary extract of the 92 chapters, on the instruction of curing diseases.

FOURTH PART.

Which contains the explanation of the practical part of Medicine. .

The examination of the pulse, wherein 13 cases are enumerated on the character of the distemper.

2. The inspection of urine, wherein, as it is said, the vicious state

of the whole body may be seen, as in a mirror.

Thus two chapters are on examining the pulse and urine.

Afterwards, when the character and name of the disease has been found out, what sorts of medicaments are to be administered, is exposed.

3. First liquid medicines, of which there are 54 for ouring inward heat, and 23 for assuaging cold fits or ague. Together there are 77 sorts of liquid medicine. When by these there is no remedy, further is an?

4. Enumeration of powdered medicine, or medicaments in powder, of which the mixture is stated to amount to 96, for assuaging the heat of any distemper; and 69 against cold fits. Both together=165. they afford no relief, there is taught of another remedy.

5. Physic or medicaments in pills, of which the different kinds of

mixture amount to 22.

6. The several kinds of sirup (a kind of mixture) are described or taught, of which 15 are for assuaging heat, and five against cold fits. Both together = 20.

For procuring strength to the body, and for drawing out an in-

veterate disease.

7. Is taught of a mixture, called medicinal butter () con-

sisting of several ingredients, of which there are 14 sorts for curing heat, and nine for taking away cold fits. Both together = 23.

8. 13 kinds of mixture of calcined powder, for curing an ague caused

by a too much abundance of phlegm.

9. 17 kinds of mixture or syrup, especially for the purpose of assuaging heat.

10. 19 species of mixture of medicinal wine (or spirituous beverage)

are enumerated, for curing diseases, in which wind prevails.

11. A mixture, as a remedy against any invoterate malady whatever, prepared of precious stones, for curing the diseases of princes, and of opulent men; one against heat, and ll against cold; eight against both; together=20.

Since men, in general, cannot have precious stones required for such

a mixture for curing diseases, in the

12. Is taught of such vegetables or plants that are procurable by all, of which the several mixtures amount to 28 for curing heat; and 14 for assuaging cold fit.

Thus taking together all assuaging remedies from the liquid to the vegetable medicines, there are 418. So much of the assuaging remedies.

When they are insufficient, in the

 Is taught of purging or depuratory medicines in general.
 Of purging medicines operating downwards, for carrying away corrupt blood, bile, and the relics of other diseases. There are three kinds of such purging (or depuratory), medicines, operating: gently, moderately, and strongly; of which all there are 82 species.

15. For carrying upwards or ejecting the remains of such diseases, as belong to the phlegmatical kind: here vomits are prescribed, of which there are eight of the stronger, and eight of the gentle kind, both=16.

16. A composition of medicine, for cleansing or purging the nose,

five of the gentle, and two of the strong kind.

17. Elixirs or extracted juices, for drawing downwards the diseases in the entrails or intestines and guts.

18. The same continued and specified.

19. Elixirs or mixtures for cleansing the veins (or depuratory elixirs for do.). Thus seven chapters are on depuratory medicines.

If by the above means there is no sufficient relief, in another sutra

is taught of other soft and hard remedies.

How to let blood in such distempers, when heat prevails. There are counted 77 veins, of which any may be opened for letting out blood.

21. The application of a caustic for curing diseases, when cold, or

cold fits prevail.

22. The use of a venomous mixture.

23. On the use of medical bath, for diseased members.

24. On adhibiting medicinal unguents.

25. On medicines operating downwards.

26. The conclusion. Though there be many ways (1,200) of examining the heat and cold prevailing in any disease, they all may be reduced to the following: to look on the tongue and urine, to feel the pulse, and to ask (after the circumstances of the beginning and progress of the disease in question).

Thus the remedies adhibited against diseases, though they be counted many (1,200), yet they may be reduched to the following four classes: medicament, manual operation, diet, and exercise. Medicament is either assuaging or depuratory: the manual operation is either gentle or rough; food is either useful or noxious; the exercise is either violent or gentle.

Again: though there be numbered 360 practical modes of curing diseases, they may be reduced to these three: examination of the patient (or of the symptoms of the disease). Rules for curing such and such disease. And the manner in which the remedy is applied.

There is taught also of preservatives for a physician, to keep him-

self safe from any malignant infection from a patient.

27. Recommendation of this treatise to the care of the audience, by the teacher (Shakya). Classification and moral application of the above enumerated 404 diseases.

The volume concludes with an account of the mode in which this treatise on medicine (consisting of four parts) reached Tibet, which is briefly incorporated in the introductory remarks.

No. IX. Interpretation of the Tibetan Inscription on a Bhotian Banner, taken in Assam, and presented to the Asiatic Society by Captain Bogle.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. V, p. 264 (1836).]

[In a letter to the Secretary of the Asiatic Society; see also Proceedings of the Asiatic Society, 4th May, 1836.]

According to the request conveyed in your letter of the 30th April, I have translated the piece of magical superstition which you have faithfully transcribed from the Bhotian board. With exception of the salutation at the beginning and the conclusion, and a few terms in the middle, the whole is in the Tibetan language. The purport of it, as will be evident from the tenor of the translation, is, to obtain the favour and protection of several inferior divinities, to increase the prosperity, &c. of the person and family for whom the ceremony was performed, and this magical piece was erected or set up.

It may be that the flag-staff, with the wooden board containing this inscription, was carried before the Tibetan chief in his march, and so used as an ensign in war; but it is more probable that it belonged originally to the house-top or terrace of the prince in Bhotan: for the houses of great personages in that country are generally decorated with such ensigns of victory at the four corners of the terraced roof. They are called in Tibetan

স্থানার্ক্র rgyal mtshan (ensign of victory), and always con-

tain inscriptions of similar purport with this.

In regard to the orthography of the piece, it frequently occurs in Tibetan writings and books, that the vowel signs are removed from their proper places, on account of the dependent letters of the line above; several cases of this occur in your transcript. The intersyllabic points at the end of a line are

generally also omitted, except with the conjunction 55" which

will also be remarked here. I have made a copy in Roman characters, and have also endeavoured to make a literal translation: the words in Italics I cannot properly interpret.

Om seasti, pronounced by the Tibetans om son, is rendered

by them in their language हैं। यदे यदाश शुनुद्रहेंना om bos

ega-su gyur-chig: "Oh may it please, may it be presperous."

Inscription on the back of the wooden Board (fig. 3, Pl. VI).

🔊 ॥ ह्यू. से.हे. झे.होर.हो.चचीर. धथश. कर.रेट. क्यां चि.७चा. रक्षाक्र्याया. रचट.घट्. चोचट. सेर. क्र्या क्षे. श. चरेमी. प्री. इमोश. शुम्मेश.र्नेमोश. रा. मोड्र. टीपूर वियःसहम्। र.वृ.ल। मेगाटः वृ.वृ. नुसः सर्द्र थ. ग्र.जूट. सि. क. शूचीश. चिन्नेत. ग्र. परे. शूब. रह. र्<u>त</u>ुर्चान्नः अक्ष्मन्नः कृष्टः तुन्ताः नायन्नःनः **सम**न्नः **८**८ः विराधरार के सार राहेटा माराया है। कैट होरे से होने हानी था विषया करे. होरे त न्दे सुना मु । दरे । या देश योग। इट शेर हा शेव कृ.चस्रेर. हिर. क्षश.ग्रेश। वैय.तट्र.यहेव.त लारयार् र्राप्त मुं श्रेराश्चेत यते यहम र्ये वृत्तिर इट वडशये केंद्रावर्श वेशका रेराजा रेटाने ग्रेन या वेशका उर् ब्रायभरमुद्दि सरम्दिक्स मार्ट परायः अट्टिश्यायरः अहरारः चार्यया। ष्यामानिनेमानिष्यान्ते यास्रुत्य सर्भारत्य स्वयम्

Om svasti I.ha Srin edé brgyad thams-chad dang lo sia zhag dus ts'hés-la dvang vahi gzah skar ts'hés lha sa bdag klu rigs sogs drégs-pa gtso hkhor

¹ For AEA. 2 For ATA

khyab-mug (for hjug) Rahula (for Rahula) ki-kang (for kañkar)
Vis'hti dus mts'han
ma pi-ling khra te'ha sogs gnyan-po hdré Srin dang
phyogs mts'hams steng hog gnas-pa rnams dang
khyad-par-du nyi-ma dé-ring gang-la rgyú vahi sa bdag

khyad-par-du nyi-ma dé-ring gang-la rgyú vahi sa bdag

Snang srid lha srin sogs thams-chad, srid-pa
Huhi phyag rgya hdi-la ltos-shig, Snang srid lha srin
Sdé brgyad khed rnams-kyis, Thub-pahi bstan-pa
la rab-tu dad-pahi rgyu sbyor sbyin-pahi bdag
po hkhor dang bchas-pahi ts'hé dang bsod
nams dpal dang hbyor-pa thams-chad
zla-va yar-gyi ño ltar gong-nas gong-du
hphel-zhing rgyas-par mdzad-du gsol.—
Om akani nékani abhila mañ'dala
Mantrayé Sváhá, Sarva mañaalam.

Translation.

O ye divinities! all hail!—(Ye) all the eight classes of the divine imps (S. Rákshasas); also ye gods, regents of the planets, constellations (in the path of the moon), and of the lunar days, having your influence upon the year, the lunation (or lunar month), and the different seasons or periods; ye possessors of the earth or land (land-proprietors), all the eight kinds of the Nágas (Hydras), &c. Ye powerful chiefs and attendants, VISHNU RAHULA, and the menial (instrumental cause) Vis'hti; ye goddesses (or nymphs) pi-ling-khraa ts-'ha, &c.; ye fierce inferior imps, who dwell in (or towards) the cardinal, intermediate, zenith and nadir points (or in the ten corners of the world); and especially ye divine imps, &c. who are rulers of those regions, wherein the sun this day is moving, ye all look on this emblem (seal, image, or signed writ, &c.) of Hu, the regent or governor, (or set up, or erected by Hv.) Ye divine eight principal imps (Rákshasas), rulers of the world (or keepers of light), I beseech you, that you will make that this patron, the bestower of charitable gifts, for obtaining the fruit of his works and actions, who is very faithful to the doctrine of the Muni (SHAKYA), may together with his household or family, increase more and more, and abound in life, fortune, (prosperity), honour, and in all his substance or wealth, like the increasing face of the moon. Om akani nékani abhila mandala, mantryé, Sváhá; Sarva mangalam.

Tettelia, 9th May, 1836.

A. C. Körösi.

X. Note on the white Satin Embroidered Scaris of the Tibetan Priests. By Major T. H. A. Lloyd. With a translation of the motto on the margin of one presented to the Asiatic Society.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. V, p. 383 (1836).]

Having received lately, with a letter from Bútan, one of the silk scarfs mentioned by TURNER as in use in that country and Tibet, which, though rather dirty, is of a superior manufacture and more highly ornamented with figures of deities than those I have heretofore met with, I think it may be presented as a specimen to the Society. I can fully confirm TURNER's account of its general use in all intercourse, and am sorry I have not had any opportunity of ascertaining the origin of the custom, which is, I believe, peculiar to Tibet, Bútan, and Sikhim. I applied to Mr. Csoma Körösi for an explanation of the sentences woven in at the ends of the scarf, and that gentleman has kindly transcribed and translated them. I enclose his notes on the subject, and to save you the trouble of a reference, I shall copy what TURNER says on this subject; to whose account I can only add that these scarfs are almost indispensable in all religious offerings. as well as on the occasions he mentions.

Titalya, 31st May, 1836.

T. H. A. LLOYD.

Extract from Turner's Embassy, 4to. Edition, 1800.

Page 67. "We each advanced, presenting, one after the other, a white silk scarf, or long narrow piece of *pelong*, fringed at both ends, as is the custom in these countries, to the Rája, who, keeping his seat all the time, took them in his hand, and passed them to his zempi.

Page 71. We delivered to the zempi, or master of the ceremonies, a silk scarf for each of us, which being thrown across

our shoulders, he dismissed us.

Page 72. An inferior, on approaching a superior, presents the white silk scarf; and, when dismissed, has one thrown over his neck, with the ends hanging down in front. Equals exchange scarfs on meeting, bending towards each other, with an inclination of the body. No intercourse whatever takes place without the intervention of a scarf; it always accompanies every letter, being enclosed in the same packet, however distant the place to which it is dispatched. Two colours are in use for this manufacture, which is of China, white and red: the latter is rather

confined to the lower orders: the white is respectful in proportion to its purity and fineness; there are various degrees in both. I am yet ignorant of the origin of this custom, but shall endeavour, at some future time, to obtain an explanation of it.

P.S.—I may also mention that the kow-tow or nine prestrations, as knocking the head nine times on the ground, is in these countries always performed by inferiors approaching

their superiors."

Translation of a Tibetan sloka, found on a white piece of China scarf, called ATATATATE bkrashis-kha-btags, or "scarf of benediction."

लट पर्ने . भूपः भूटः । का भूपः भूटः । का भूपः भूटः ।

कुश्-तून्। र्यूश्-दून्। न्यूश्-दून्। न्यूश्-दून्। न्यूश्-दून्। न्यूश्-दून्। न्यूश्-दून्। न्यूश्-दून्। न्यूश-दून्। न्यूश-दून्।

The same in Roman Character.

Nyin-mo bde-legs mts'han bde'-legs, Nyin-mahi gung yang bde-legs-shing,

Nyin mts'han rtag-tu brda-legs-pahi, dkon-chog gsum-gyi

bkra shis shog.

Translation.

"Blessed the day; blessed the night; the mid-day also being blessed: may day and night always return (bring) the special favour of the three most precious (holy) ones."

(Or thus; the favour of the eminent three holy ones) the TEANTY being rendered, in Latin, insignis, eminens, &c.

Note.—On the cloth the সহসেল্ড' is not sufficiently distinct; I took it first for সহ সেল্ড' as in the two former lines; but now I correct it as it probably stands on the cloth.

No. XI. Notices on the Different Systems of Buddhism, extracted from the Tibetan authorities.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. VII, Part I, p. 142 (1838).]

Sángyé (SICA) Sangs-r, gyas) is the generic name for expressing the Supreme Being or intelligence in the Buddhistic system. This term corresponds to the Sanskrit Buddha. In Tibetan it denotes the most perfect being, that is pure (or clean) from all imperfections, and abounds in all good qualities.

There are three distinctions with respect to the essence, the

substance or body of BUDDHA; as

To the Sambhogkáya belong the Dhyáni Buddhas of five kinds, the chief of whom is Vairochana (or Bèrotsana, as the Tibetans pronounce it, called by them, हुआदार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्श्वादार्थ्या

snang-mdsad: the illuminator. These are the attendants of A'di-Buddha.

To the third or Nirmankáya belong the several incarnations of Buddha. Immense is the number of such Buddhas that have appeared in former ages in the several parts of the universe. In

this age (styled the happy age) the number of incarnations of Buddhas is one thousand, four of whom have appeared hitherto, and the rest are to come hereafter. Though there are mentioned many Buddhas as having appeared and having taught their doctrines, yet in the modern Buddhistic system every thing is attributed or referred to Shákya, who is supposed (by the Tibetans) to have lived about one thousand years before Jesus Christ.

The different systems of Buddhism derived from India, and known now to the Tibetans, are the following four:—

- 1. Vaibháshika, (53774 byè-brag-pa).
- 2. Sautrántika, (🏋 🖫 🎖 mdo-sdé-pa).
- 3. Yogáchárya (রুমার্ম্বর্ট্র ট্র্রিন্মা or হার্মার্মার্মান্দানাhbyor-spyod-pa, or sems-tsam-pa).
 - 4. Madhyamika (55.51.51—dvu-ma-pa).

The first consists of four principal classes with its subdivisions. They originated with Sha'kya's four disciples; who are called in Sanskrit, Ra'hula, Ka'shyapa, Upa'li, and Ka'tya'yana.

- 1. Ra'hula (Tib. শ্রুপাত্র বেইর sgra-gchan-hdsin), the
- son of Sha'kya. His followers were divided in four sects. They recited the Sútra on emancipation, in Sanskrit; they affirmed the existence of all things; they were on their religious garb from twenty-five to nine narrow pieces of cloth. The distinctive mark of this class was an *utpala padma* (water-lily), jewel, and tree-leaf put together in the form of a nosegay.*
 - 2. Ka'shyapa (35 35 -- Hod-srung), of the Brahman

caste. His followers were divided into six sects. They were called the "great community." They recited the Sutra of emancipation in a corrupt dialect. They were on their religious garb from twenty-three to three pieces of narrow cloth; and they carried a shell or conch as a distinctive mark of their school.

3. UPA'LI (Tib. 3'ZZ'ZZZ - Nyé-vár-kkhor), of the Sádra tribe. His followers were divided into three sects. They recited the emancipation Sútra in the language of the flesh-eaters, Pisháchika. They were on their religious garb from twenty-

May not these notes explain the marks on our Buddhist coins !-

one to five pieces of narrow cloth. They carried a sortsika flower as a mark of their school. They were styled, "the class which is honored by many."

tribe. His followers were divided into three sects; they recited the emancipation Sútra in the vulgar dialect. They were the same number of narrow pieces of cloth, as the former class, and they had on their garb the figure of a wheel, as the distinctive mark of their school. They were styled: "the class that have a fixed habitation,"

755.75

The followers of the Vaibháshika system, in general, stand on the lowest degree of speculation. They take every thing in the scriptures in their most vulgar acceptations; they believe every thing, and will not dispute. Secondly, of the

- 2. Sautrátika school () mdo-sdé-pa), a follower of the Sútras. There are two classes, the one will prove every thing by authorities contained in the scriptures, the other by arguments.
- 3. The third division is that of the Yogáchárya, (30.25%)

 15.21—nal-bydr-spyod-pa, or SINN SN 21—sems-tsam-pa.

 There are counted nine subdivisions of this school. The principal works on this system are referred to A'RYA SANGA (225%)

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 15.21—sems-tsam-pa.
- 4. Madhyam school (55.57.21 Dvu-ma-pa, they that keep a middle way). This is properly the philosophical system. It originated with Nagarjuna (35.57.21 klu-sgrub), 400 years

after the death of Shakya. His principal disciples have been A'RYA DRVA and BUDDHA PALITA. There are in the Stan-gyur several works of them on the Madhyamika system. Some learned pandits in India have united this system with that of the Yoyichaya, as BODHISATWA (or SHANTA RAKSHITA has done) in the 5th century, and afterwards ATISHA in the 11th.

CHANDRA KI'RTI, 37 7 7 7 7 Wrote a commentary on the

original work of NAGARJUNA; as also several other works introductory to, and explanatory of, the Madhyamika theory. In all the higher schools in Tibet these works are now the chief authorities in all controversies relating to the Madhyámika system.

From among the four theories above specified, only the two last are philosophical, the two first being rather dogmatical, or following implicitly scriptural authorities. According to the views of some writers, there is little difference between the Yogáchárya and the Madhyámika theories also, as some have united them; except that the former is more practical and the latter more theoretical or speculative (dealing with too many abstract terms, and minute discriminations). In the Do class of the Stan-gyur, there are many volumes containing works explanatory of both these systems. But they can be understood only by the learned, the generality of the religious persons (or the clergy) prefer to read Tantrika works, the Dulvá, and some tracts of the Do class of the Káh-gyur.

The above mentioned systems are well known to many of the learned in Tibet; but there are likewise many who are

acquainted only with their names.

There is another distinction (with which the Tibetans are more familiar, and which is taken from the scriptures) with respect to the principles on which the scriptural works are founded;

that of ब्रेनाटानाइड Thég-pa-gsum; S. Tri-yanam, the three

vehicles. Accordingly all Buddha scriptures are calculated for the lowest, the mean or middle, and the highest capacities; for, they contain low or vulgar, middle, and high principles to

be known by such as aspire to any degree of perfection.

Some writers have used the name of "Lam-rim," degrees of way (to perfection), considering men on three different degrees of intellectual and moral capacity; as, men of little, middle, and highest capacities. Under this title there are now in Tibet (among those of the Géluk-pa sect) several manual works on the principles of the Buddhistic religion. Among these "Lamrims" the most esteemed and the most comprehensive is that of TSONKHA-PA, a celebrated Lama, who flourished in the beginning of the fifteenth century.

According to the Lam-rim there are three degrees of

principles with respect to the theory of the Buddha faith.

1. Men of vulgar capacity must believe that there is a God, there is a future life, and that they shall therein have the fruits of their works in this life.

2. Those that are on a middle degree of intellectual and moral capacity, besides admitting the former positions, must know, that every compound thing is perishable, that there is no reality in things; that every imperfection is pain, and that deliverance from pain or bodily existence is final happiness or beatitude.

• 3. Those of the highest capacities, besides the above enumerated articles, know that from the body or last object to the supreme soul, nothing is existing by itself, neither can be said that it will continue always, or cease absolutely; but that every thing exists by a dependent or causal connection or concatenation.

With respect to practice, those of vulgar capacity are content with the exercise of the ten virtues. Those of a middle degree, besides the fulfilling of the ten virtues, endeavour to excel in morality, meditation, and ingenuity or wisdom. Those of the highest capacities besides the former will perfectly exercise the six transcendal virtues.

With respect to their summum bonum.

The first seeing the miseries of those suffering in the bad places of transmigration; as, in hell, *Yidáks*, and beasts, wish to be born among men, the asurs and the gods.

Those of the second class, not contented with the happiness of the former, wish for themselves only to be delivered entirely from pain and bodily existence. Lastly; these regarding as pain, every bodily existence, in whatever region of the world it be, aspire to final emancipation, and wish to arrive at the supreme perfection, that they may become able to help others in their miseries.

Such distinction in speculative Buddhism, as that of the Swabhávika, Aishwarika, Kármika, and Yatnika does not exist in Tibetan books (except, perhaps, among the Nyigmā-pa sect, who are said to possess yet several volumes that have not been printed in the Káh-gyur and Stan-gyur collections, but which may be found in Tibet both written and printed, among the people of that sect), although there are many works in the Stangyur containing materials on the several doctrines or tenets of those philosophical schools.

The ancient philosophical sects in India mentioned frequently and partly described in the Tibetan books, especially

in the Stan-gyur volumes, are as follows:

1. Grangs-chen-pa (পুরুষ্ট্র-Sánkhya in Sanskrit).

The Buddhists have adopted much of this school. In the Ξ and Ξ volumes of the Do class in the Stan-gyur, there is an account of the six schools (and of others also) in ancient India.

- 2. Chè-prág-pá (ਤ੍ਰੈ'ਤ੍ਰਗ੍ਰਤ,—S. Vaisheshika).
- 3. Rig-chet-pá (देन नुद्-८. Védantika).

- 4. Shot-ps-ps (555 2121 -- S. Mimánsaka).
- 5. Jigten-gyáng-phen-pá (प्रदेश देशका S. Lok-

áyata). 6. Those that take Váng-chuk (555-35-

for the first principle.

They that take Ts'hangs-pa (Brahma), for the first principle.

They that take Khyáb-juk (\paraff = S. Vishnu), for ditto.

- They that take Skyes-bu (St. S. Parusha), for ditto.
- They that take gTsovo (abla 55 8. Pradhána) ditto.
 - They that take time (551-S. Kála), for ditto.
 - The atomists or they that take rdul-phran (天지각5) the atoms for the first principle of the existence of the world. There are yet some others also. The general principles of practical Buddhism with a

follower of this faith in Tibet, are such as follow.

1. To take refuge only with Buddha.

To form in his mind the resolution of endeavouring to arrive at the highest degree of perfection, to be united with the supreme intelligence.

3. To prostrate himself before (the image of) Buddha; to

To bring offerings before him, such as are pleasing to any adore him. of the six senses; as, light, flowers, garlands, incenses, perfumes, all sorts of edible and drinkable things (whether raw or prepared), stuffs, cloths, &c. for garments and hanging ornaments.

5. To make music, sing hymns, and utter praises on Buddha, respecting his person, doctrine, love or mercy, his perfections or attributes; his acts or performances for the benefit of all animal beings.

6. To confess one sains with a contrite heart; to sair forgive-

ness of them, and to declare sincerely not to commit such afterwards.

· 7. To rejoice in the moral merits of all animal beings, and to wish that they may contribute them to obtain thereby final

emancipation or beatitude.

8. To pray and exhort all the Buddhas that are now in the world to turn the wheel of religion (or to teach their doctrines) and not to leave soon the world, but to remain here for many ages (Kalpas).

No. XII. Enumeration of Historical and Grammatical Works to be met with in Tibet.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. VII, Part II, p. 147 (1838).]

Works, containing historical matter, may be found, in Tibet, under the following names:

- 1. Lo-gyus (মৃদ্ধ) lo-rgyus), meaning annals, chronicle, history.
- 2. Tam-gyut (\Pi\sigma\
- 3. Ch'hos-jung (EN'ASE Ch'hos-hbyung), origin and progress (of the elements) of the (Buddhistic) religion.
- 4. Tokzhot (595755 rtogs-brjod), properly a judicious saying; memoir, reflections, critique, biography.
- 5. Nám thár (55195 (rnam-thar), properly emancipation, liberation, biography, legend.
 - 6. Grung (SIN Grungs), a fable, fiction, fabulous history.
- 7. Stan-çis (Signature Betan-risis), chronology, or calculation of some events or epochs occurring in the sacred volumes.

To the first class or "lo-gyus" may be referred the following works, on account of their contents being of a historical character.

- 1. Mani-kabum (和2月12月到 ma-ni-bkak-bbum), an historical work, composed by Srong-tsan-gampe (近口5年 開刊日 Srong-Busan-sgam-po), a celebrated king in Tibet, in the seventh century of the Christian era.
 - 2 Padma-tháng-yik (215 ACWA) Padma-thang-yig)

another historical work, written in the eighth or ninth century, in the time of Khri-Srong De'-Tsan (国家区域 555) by an Indian guru, called in Tibetan Padma Jung-ne, (马克克), in Sanskrit Padma Sambhava.

- 3. Ká-thángdé-ná (STATET), by the before men tioned guru, and by some Tibetan translators or lotsavas, in five parts, containing biographical notices of princes, queens, chief officers, pandits and lotsavas or Tibetan translators.
- 4. Yik-nying (War & C), ancient writ or chronicle, compiled by the ancient Tibetan translators.
- 5. Yik-zhung-ch'hen-mo (ฟัตาตุธาลิร์ลี), containing Indian history from Asoka (వారకాష్ mya-nan-med, in Tibetan) a king (who lived one hundred and ten years after the death of Shakya, and had his residence at Pataliputra and Dehli) till the time of Pharita Sana (in the beginning of the fourteenth century of our era).

Others historical works are known under the following titles:

- 6. Ká-teik-ch'hen-mo (यादिः हैम्झि हेर्ने हेर्
- 7. Ká-ch' hem-ká-k' hol-ma (नात् हें अंश नात् द्विय अ)
- 8. Gyel-rab-pag-sam-jon-shing (मुतारपरार्पानायश्रहाह्नेत्र
 - 9. She-cha-rap-sal (DN 5 X T T T NA)
 - 10. Gyel rap-salvai-melong (मुतार्यसम्बद्धार्यायदि से प्रेटि)
 - 11. Bod-kyi-yik-ts'ang (בֿק'יַן'נאָק'בֿב'), Tibetan records.
 - 12. Dep-ter-non-po (देश देश के), ancient records.
- 13. Sa-s,kya-yik-ts'ang (N'H'WTEC), records made in the Sa-skya monastery.

14. Gyahi-yik-te'ang (நில்வுக்டு), Chinese records, translated by BLAMA RIN-CH'HEN-GRAGS-PA.

There are in Tibet some historical fragments under this title Gtam gyut (), traditional history, also.

Under this title, ch'hos-jung (), Elements of religion, or the origin and progress of the Buddhistic religion, there are several works in Tibet, according to the different authors. As by NE'L-PA, by BU-S,TON; the Ch'os' jung of the Bkah-gdamspa sect, that originated in the eleventh century; ditto of the Bruk-pa sect, by PADMA KARPO.

Under this name: "Tokzhot" (5781765 S. Avadána), there are many historical fragments both in the Káh-gyur and Stan-gyur (especially in the Ky or thirtieth volume of the Mdo

class of the Káh-gyur, mostly of a legendary character. But besides these there are also true narrations. The following work is of a mixed character of this kind:

२थन्र स्था में देन् र नहेंद्र '' sham-bha-lahi rnam bshat-dang

Under this name: nám thár ' ﷺ, there are many his torical works in Tibet, containing narratives of the life of any great personage, as the life of Shákya, in a mdo or sútra, called ﷺ

TALE (gya-cher-rol-pa) or 'Lalita vistara' in Sanskrit.

As also in the Mdo styled حَرَّ عَرَّ عَرَّ عَرَّ عَرَّ مَنْ الله مُنْ الله مُنْ الله عَلَيْ عَلَيْ عَلَيْ الله عَلَيْ الله عَلَيْ عَلَيْ عَلَيْ عَلَيْ عَلَيْ

To this class belong the following works, as: Dpag-beam-k'hri-shing (55575000), by DGE-VAHLDVANG-PO

(S. Shubhendra), translated from Sanskrit. The "rnam-t'har " or legendary narrative (contained in the betan-gyur) of eighty-four persons, in ancient India. How they were emancipated, or acquired preternatural faculties.

The ANIGN mam-thar, of the sixteen principal disciples (MANIGN nétan) of Shákya.

The hundred acts of SHARYA compiled by TARANATHA, a Tibetan Lama, in the seventeenth century.

The twelve acts of SHIKYA, by Shong-Tsan-Gambo, in the

Manikabum.

The "skyés-rabs-brgya-pa" or one hundred new births or

regenerations, by a Lama of the Karmapa sect.

. There are in the *Dulva* biographical notices of several princes, wealthy citizens, and other illustrious persons, in ancient India.

Amongst the Grungs () or fabulous narratives, the

"Kesar Grungs" () () or fabulous history of Kesar a warlike ancient king in central Asia, is much celebrated in Tibet.

On Stan-çis (Br অমুক্টিম) or astronomical calculations of

some events or epochs, occurring in the sacred volumes of Shastras, there are likewise several works, in Tibet. Of this kind are the commentaries on the "Kala chakra or dus-kyi-hk'hor-lo," in Tibetan, made by several learned men,—as;

by "Bu-ston" (555) in the fourteenth century, by "Jo-

nang-pa'' by "Mk'has-grub" in the fifteenth century; by "Panch'-hen-blo-bzang-ch'hos-kyi-rgyel-mts'han," by "Padma karpb"—(a celebrated Lama of the Bruk-pa sect, in the sixteenth century.

Also a commentary on the Kala chakra, and the history of the Buddhistic religion, written in Tibetan by a Mongol Lama

(Sum-bha-zhabs-trung) in the last century.

The "risis-kyi-hoyung k'hungs" (FATHAJETEN) ele-

List of such Indian (or Sanskrit) grammatical works, as have been known to the ancient Tibetan issued men, and partly

have been translated into Tibetan, or have been only quoted by

The names of these works have been collected in the last volumes of the B, stan-gyur compilation. They are as follows: Pdni-vyákarana, in two thousand slókas; Maha-bhána, a commentary of the former in one hundred slókas by klu-nob-rgyas-khi-bu''—not translated. An abridgment of the two former by Ráma Chandra.

A grammar, in twenty-four chapters, by Chandra Gomi.

A commentary on the twenty prepositive particles, by do.

A Sútra on the letters, by do.

A commentary on the letters by Ch'hos-skyong (S. Dherma-pala).

The several cases of nouns, by Chandra Gomi, in explana-

tory verses.

Another grammatical work, by ZLA-VA-GRAGS-PA. (S. Chandra kirtti.)

A commentary on the Chandrapá by Pandita RATNA MALI, in twelve thousand slókas.

A commentary on the former by Pandita PURNA CHANDRA, in thirty thousand slókas.

Deyings-mdohi-hgrel-pa, a commentary on the verbal roots,

by "BYINS-KYI-DPUNG-GRYEN."

Ting-mthahi-behad-pa: explication of the "ting" termination.

The milch-cow of desire.

The eight compositions.

The Kalápa in fifteen chapters, by Dvang-Phyug-go-Oh'ha Sde-spyod byá-karana, in five hundred slókas, a commentary on the Kalápa, by Brahman Ugra Bhu'ti.

The "Si," &c. &c. of the Kalapa, explained by HJAM-

dPAL-GRAGS-PA (S. Manjukirtti).

A grammatical work, introductory to every speech or language.

A commentary on the same, by a teacher: SUBHASHA

A commenstry on the twenty prepositive particles, by DVANG-PO-BYIN (S. Indradatta).

Dyangs-chan-byakarana (of Saraswati) in thirty-one chapters. Six great commentaries of the former, and several smaller ones.

(un) and other terminations explained in a Sutra.

by Dun-Sing.

A States on the type (un) termination, by "CHANDRA"—
with a commentary by the author himself.

A Sútra of roots in the Kalápa and in the Chandrapa, by "Gang-vahi-zla-va" (S. Púrnna Ĉhandra).

🔾 (ti) and other terminations of actions, &c., explained by

dGah-vahi-grags-pa.

Collection of words having the same sound but different signification. H.jam-Dvyangs (S. Maniu-ghosha) byákaranahir.tsta-va. by SADHU-KIRTTI.

A commentary on Páninis grammar, by RAMA CHANDRA. Panini-byings-mdo (the roots Sútra, of Panini), by Pandita

hjigs-med-e,dé.

On the above enumerated Indian grammatical works, there are some commentaries made by the Tibetans. As; by "Buston-rin-ch'hen-grub' and 'Zhalu-lo-tsa-va ch'hos-sk'yong-

bzang-po."

There are, likewise, in Tibet, several works teaching how to read the Sanskrit text, especially the mantras. The most common are those (both the text and the commentary on) written by "SANGHA SHRI" at Snar-thang. But there are others also, made by TARANATHA, by KUNLE'GS, by DDE'-LE'GS, and by SITUPA.

The most ancient grammatical work extant for the Tibetan language is that made by "SAMBOTA" in the seventh century. Its Tibetan name is: "Lung-du-ston-pa-sum-chu-pa" and "r, Tags-kyi-P, jug-pa" or grammatical introduction in thirty slókas, and the adding of the characteristic letters (for the forma-

tion of the several cases of nouns, &c.).

Both these treatises are very short, making not more than three or four small leaves. They give little information, and are interesting only on account of the grammatical terms. But there are now many commentaries on this original text, composed by the authors, whose names here follow, as: Dvu-pa-bLo-gsal, Lo-ch'hen-Nam-Mkhah-rgya-Mts'ho, «Nar-thang-lo-tsá-Sangha-Yar-hbrog-pa-rin-ch'hen-tog, dgé-yé-va-ts'hul-k'hrims-Shri, Pan-ch'hen-gser-mdog-chan-pa, dpah-vo-gtsug-lag Sengé, H,p'hreng-va, Zur-Mk'har-va-bLo-gros-rgyal-po, Rab-hbyamssmra-va-ch'hos-rgyal, Hol-pa-rab-hbyams, Sman-lung-pa-bLomoh'hogrdo-rjé, Zha-lu-lo-tsá-va-ch'hos-skyong-Bzang-po, Yhalu-pa-ch'hos-legs, Byams-gLing-Bsod-nams-mam-r,gyal, Kunmk'-hyen-go-ram-pa. (These two last have commented only the "Sum-Stchu-pa.") Zag-lung-ch'hos-rje, Rab-hbyans pajam-gral, K'ha-rag-sprul-sku, Drung-yig-hjam-Dvyangs, these have written answers to some proposed questions respecting grammar). Pan-ch'hen-dkon-Mch'hog-ch,hos-grags, wrote in the seventeenth century under this title; "Legs-Bshad snang byed-norbu '' on sixty four leaves.)

SITU, or LDOM-BU-PA of Derghé in Kham-yul, wrote in the last century, on eighty-six leaves. The title of his grammar is: "mk'has-pahi-mgul-rgyan-mu-tig-phreng-mdses" (a beautiful necklace of pearls for a neck ornament of the learned).

There are yet several other grammatical works on the

language of Tibet.

A. Cs.

No. XIII. Remarks on Trans-Himalayan Boodhist Amulets.

[J.A.S.B., Vol. IX, Part II, p. 905 (1840).]

With reference to the two scrolls which were sent to you from Almora, and which you had left with me, together with a letter from Mr. W. E. Carte, on the 17th ultimo, I beg leave to inform you that both contain abstracts of some larger Tantrika works, or religious treatises, in Tibetan, interspersed with mantras in Sanscrit. The first paper, eight feet five inches long, of which the figures take two feet five inches, and the text six feet, contains 244 lines (two and a half inches long each) in printed Tibetan character. I cannot exactly tell you what the figures may represent, but I think the first is the regent, or ruler of the year, figured by a victorious king. The second is a tortoise, with nine spots on the belly, representing the lucky and unlucky periods, accordingly as the moon is affected by the planets and constellations, during her daily progress in her path. Then come the twelve animals, after which the years of the cycle of twelve years are called, opposite one to another, thus: the rat or mouse and ox: tiger and hare; dragon and serpent; horse and sheep, or ram; ape and bird; the dog and hog. Then the amphora and pices, for the twelve zodiacal signs ;-signs of four planets, as the sun and moon, for all the rest. Then representations of the four, eight, and ten corners of the world. A king, his minister, horse, elephant, soldier, sun, moon, eye, ass, etc. Afterwards, from the head of a bird downwards, in two lines, there are Chinese symbolical figures, or characters, having perhaps the same meaning as the figures above designed. These symbolical characters were used 200 years before Jesus Christ. under the Han dynasty; the Tibetans now also use them on large square seals.

There are on this paper five different abridged Tantrika.

works, or sútras, under distinct titles, the Sanscrit being generally

erroneously written.

I. Contents of the first stitrs. The salutation, only in Sanacrit, thus: Namo Shri Kalachakrayé (which should be thus: Namos Shri Kālachakraya. English: 'Salutation to the circle of Time.' The year, month, day, and hour, are figured by a prince, minister, soldier, and weapon. All the regents of the year, month, day, and hour; those of the planets constellations, stars, Nagas, and imps are requested to look on these symbolical figures, and be favourable to the person tho warre

or carries with him these symbols and mystical prayers, that he may succeed in every undertaking. Many particular businesses or works (religious, sacrificial, civil, and economical) are here enumerated, and all classes of divinity are requested not to hinder him in any of his occupations, but to assist him, that he may increase in prosperity, and see all his works accomplished. Here also occur some mantras; that, at the end being thus: Om! Supratis'ht'ha Vajrayé-Swáhá, Mangalam.

2. The second work contains in Sanscrit, short addresses to Shákya Muni, to Vágíshwári, to Manipadmé, to Vajra Páni,

and to Vajra Guru, Padma Siddhi.

3. The third contains one sloka and a half, in Tibetan, with a mystical formula in Sanscrit, on the melodious recital of the several attributes of Manju Shri (in Tibetan, Jám-pál) the god of wisdom. It is pretended that this short sútra, taught by Shákya himself, and buried underground in the country of Lho-brag, in Tibet, by Padma Sambhava in the 9th century after Jesus Christ, was taken out and divulged by Guru Chos-

kyi d, Vang phyug.

This is called the venerable sutra, dispelling the darkness of the ten corners of the world. The salutation is especially addressed to Jámpál (Manju Shri, in Sans.) and to the ten Buddhas in the ten corners of the world. In each of the ten corners of the world (four cardinal, four intermediate, the Zenith and Nadir) fancifully is named a Buddha province, with a fancied Buddha in it. To each of them successively is addressed a set form of salutation, with a short request, thus: "If I go towards, that corner, after having obtained my aim, grant that I may quickly return home." Again a request to those Buddhas, that he who carries with him this sútra, may obtain, together with his family, similar blessings to those granted to a handsome faced youth by Shakya, when he first taught him this sutra. Then follow some mantras. Lastly, is stated by whom, and in what part of Tibet this sútra, was found, and taken out from underground.

5. This is styled the "Sútra of eight lights." The salutation is addressed to Buddha, religion, and holy priests, etc. There are several mantras, or physical formulæ in Sanscrit, to avert any unlucky year, month, day, and hour, the influence of any malignant planet and star. Other mantras for preventing any unlucky accident before and after noon. Then follow several other mystical prayers for averting any evil or calamity, intended by Tshangs-pa (Sans. Brahmá) by the great god (Sans. Mahá Déva). Then follows a prayer, that by the repetition of the mantras all evil spirits may be driven away, all hostile troops defeated, and that every wish may be accomplished. Statement of the place where this Sútra was found under the ground. The conclusion is with this mantra: "Om / Vajra Chan'da Mahá Roshana Hén, Phat. Namas Chan'da Vajra Krodháya,

Hulu Hulu, Tishtha Tishtha, Bandha Bandha, Hana Hana,

Armati Húm, Phat, Mangalm."

The second paper (four feet eight inches long, together with the figures of the twelve animals, after which the years in the cycle of twelve years are denominated) contains, in 121 lines three inches long each, a manuscript copy of the two last numbers of the former paper, also a rough sketch of the nine spots on the belly of a tortoise, in a square; and afterwards, successively downwards, the figures of the twelve animals of the cycle of twelve years. The writing may easily be read, but the orthography is bad, and the Sanscrit titles and mantras have been erroneously transcribed.

This is the sum of the general contents of the two scrolls worn by the Tibetans as amulets for obtaining the favour of particular

divinities, and for averting all kinds of evil spirits.

No. XIV. A brief Notice of the Subhashita Ratna Nidhi of Saskya Pandita, with extracts and translations.

J.A.S.B., Vol. XXIV, p. 141 and Vol. XXV, p. 257 (1855) (1856).

[The following paper was written so far back as 1833, and would have been published in continuation of the series which appeared in the earlier Numbers of this Journal, had not the death of the writer thrown difficulties in the way of bringing out the Tibetan text. These difficulties have been removed through the kind assistance of Dr. Campbell of Darilling, who has had the proofs corrected by Lama Aden Cheboo at that station, who had studied the Buddhist religion and Tibetan literature at the monastery of Menduling in Thibet.

Cs. de Körösi refers to leaf 23, page 44 of the Index of the Kah-gyar, which collection he had previously noticed in Vol. II. of the Journal.—

ED.]

This work was composed by the celebrated "Sa-skya Pandita" (called in Tibetan, শুরু বৃদ্ধে দুরু স্থান কর্ম বৃদ্ধে নাম নাম বি

K'un dgah rgyal-mts'han dpal bzang-po; in Sanskrit, Ananda Dwaja Shri Bhadra), who flourished in the 13th century, in the time of Ginghis-khan and his successors. He resided in the Sa-skya monastery, a Convent, in Middle Tibet, in the province of Ts'eng, one hundred days' journey distant from Tashi Lhunpo () That Great Lama (called: "hP'hags-pa

hGro mGon " त्यमहादात्र्ने होनेंद्र) to whom Riblai-khan

(the emperor of China, of the Mongol dynasty, in the last half of the 13th century) had granted the whole Middle Tibet (or U-tsang) was the nephew (or a brother's sen) of this learned Pandita. Their descendants possess now also the above mentioned Monastery (with some small appartenances) and are next in dignity after the two great Lames of Lhans and Tachi Lhunpo. The Sa-skya (KK) Monastery (or Convent)

is one of those places in Tibet where many Sankrit books (taken or transported from India) may be found as walls of the contraction of the contract of the con

ञ्चन्यः प्रम्पर्यः देवः संक्रेतः निहरः वे भः

اا بردایه لحق لوب لهاید، ایدار کرد، به لهید

Subháshíta Ratna Nidhi náma Shástra is the title of the work in Sanskrit.

Salutation to Manju Sri.

The presentation of sacrificial offerings to the All-knowing, the Sovereign of men. What is to be understood by "A Treasury of Elegant Sayings" or, in a literal translation: A Precious Treasure of Elegant Sayings, i.e., a Literary Work. Reverence be to "h,P'hags-pa h,jam-d,pal" the juvenile form of the god of wisdom. (S. A'rya Mañju Srí kumár Bhuta.) After having presented my oblations of the most precious things, taken from the religious instructions of the chief of the gods (Shákya) from the religious instructions of the chief of the gods (Shákya) from Nágarjuna, the prince of logicians; from Vyása, Válmiki, Akshapáda, &c., I adore the Sovereign of men, the All-knowing. The exhibition of judicious reflexions upon all sorts of wordly affairs, and upon the conduct of the virtuous (holy or excellent) men, without offending (in all these) against good morals, is called "A'Precious Treasure of Elegant Sayings."

- बुर्राय रट.कुर. जुब्दायरी भु.च. कु.चर. चब्र्याचाला कु.पर्टर. भाषशता श्र.श्रुर. मेट.। इ.पर्टर. भाषशता श्र.श्रुर. मेट.।
- विट्या श्रीकारी क्षेत्र गुक्त । श्रीक्ष श्रीकारी क्षेत्र गुक्त । श्रीक्ष श्रीकारी क्षेत्र गुक्त । श्रीकारी श्रीकारी क्षेत्र गुक्त ।
- बुर-रु-प्रसंस कर-सिन् सेर-प्रमा सेर-प्रमा । नाल्य-मु-र्जेय-रे-य-क्रिया नाल्य-मु-र्जेय-रे-य-क्रिया नाल्य-मु-र्जेय-रे-य-क्रिया नाल्य-मु-र्जेय-रे-य-प्रमा सेर-प्रमा ।
- I. Reflection on the Wise. (SIAN'SI'S 59'S)

NOTE.—The word (critical investigation) is added, in the text, to the subject of each chapter, but, in this extract, it will be left out.—See the Tibetan Text.

1. Were you to die the next year, acquire science: though in this life you cannot become wise, in your future birth, it will be a recommendatory precious thing, if taken with you.

2. If you are a talented man, every one gathers round about you, without being called; a scented flower, though it be at a far distance, is surrounded with a cloud of swarming wasps.

3. A wise man, though possessed of immense perfections, will learn from others; and by such continual practice, he will at last arrive at omniscience.

- मिट्टमारीक्षार्योत् क्रमका ग्रीट्ट्सस ॥ रची त्राप्ता क्रमका नियमका क्रमका रची त्राप्ता क्रमका
- - 6 वयशः प्रायामशः वः कृषः <u>त</u>्रापटः ।
 - स्था शुर स्थानी पर्लुर, सर. ४मीर ॥ स्थाप स्थार, सबे. क्षण, कुर लाट.। संबरी प्राप्त प्रदेश स्था कुर लाट.।

4. If a wise man behaves himself prudently, how can he be overpowered by the enemy, though they be many. That Brahman of Ujjayana, a single man, has overcome all the hosts of the enemy.

5. A brave, wise and a fortunate man (who has accumulated moral merits) though he be alone, overcomes all. The lion, the king of deer (or of wild beasts), and the universal menarch

(a Chakravarti king) want no assistant,
6. If you are wise, you may make a slave of the great also.
The Garuda, though a strong and mighty bird, is made the vehicle of Vishnu.

- कुर्त्त प्र चट्टे.च. ब्रुच. श्रे. पर्चेर ॥ चट्टे.च. श्रेट्रज. श्रोमश. ध्रुश्री चट्टे.चर. श्रेट्रज. श्रोमश. ध्रुश्री। चट्टे.चर. श्रेट्रज. श्रोमश. श्रेगी।
- भोजन स. जुनोन्न.चन्द्र. ग्रीसन्त्र. ट्रामा। उद्देर. जूब. श्वेद. तम. श्र. ट्रममा.डे। मेण.तू. प्र. यट. शह्रदे.ब्र्ट्स-ग्रीम. भुब। वे.सब्ह्.क्. जुना. श्रुट्सम. ब्रेट.।

7. The wise, in the time of studying, suffer pains; since, without exertion, it is impossible to become wise. He that is passionate for a small pleasure, never can arrive at great felicity.

8. If you are intelligent, though you be weak, what can do to you a powerful enemy? The king of the wild beasts (or of the deer), though strong, was killed by an intelligent hare.

9. The ocean is never satiate with water. The treasury of a king is never full of money. One is never satisfied with the enjoyment of a thing. Wise men are insatiable with elegant sayings.

A Brief Notice of Subháshita Ratna Nidhi.

चिश्वः कर्यं विद्या। ।

बेर्यः तथरा ग्रीटः चिश्वः हे ।

हे , हेशः पर्वेटः चिश्वः हु द्रश्वः ग्री।

श्रामशःदा श्रेशः हु द्रदशःशे. लुर्यः

श्रामशःदा श्रेशः हु द्रदशःशे. लुर्यः

त्रीय, स्त्रेचां यहे, जुंबा शोवंश, क्षशः स्त्रींचा।।
बुंद्र-ती, चींया शक्ष्य, क्ष्य, श्रिय, श्रुवां।
प्राप्तात्रा, श्रुवांश, यक्ष्य, चींयां।
ध्रुप्ताचींश, स्त्रियं, पश्चिंयः, चींयांया, नुदे।।
ध्रुप्ताचींश, स्वांया, प्राप्ता, स्त्रेचां।
ध्रुप्ताचींश, स्वांया, स्त्रेचां।
ध्रुप्ताचीं, रिश्तांप्त, स्त्रुप्त, क्ष्यं।

 From children also, wise men receive the fine sayings for sweet scent the navel of a musk deer also is opened.

II. THE EXCELLENT (VIRTUOUS OR GOOD) (WASS)

11. It is always by excellent men that good qualities are more praised (celebrated). The scent of the Malaya sandal-wood is diffused by the wind into the ten corners of the world.

12. If an excellent (or virtuous) man is chosen for Master, when every one finds his concern and happiness (or has his wish obtained). Wise men say: when the sacrifice is performed with a gem on the top of a banner, it is the sign of the happiness of that country.

- चाटश. थी. ठंचंच. खुंचा. लूटं.ज.चुंटे॥ मुश्रश्च. ग्रीश. चटेच. राष्ट्र.शुश्चश. थ्ये. थंशश। क्षेचा. राम. श्रुश. चील. ट्यें.तम. उचीम। 13 चितारये. चांक्ये. ग्रीश. च्युश.रायो।
 - नश्चारः स्ट्रिनशः मुद्दरः हुशःशः दह्दशः। प्रनेदः सूत्रः मुद्दरः मुशःचन्द्रयःयःय। भूःन्वारः सूत्रः मुद्दरः समाःचन्द्रःस्। भूःन्वारः सूत्रः मुक्तःचन्द्रः।
 - भु. खे. चीका प्रवस्त्र स्ट्रा भु. वेस्.रे. चि. चक्रेक लटा भुर्य त्रास्त्र चिर्यास क्षेत्र लटा भु. येस्य दशसा चीर चीस चीरा चीरा

13. When men are injured by a wicked prince, then will they remember a virtuous king. They that suffer of a malignant fever think only on cool water.

14. When a wicked prince does injury, a virtuous king is the more ready to defend. To him, that is occupied of an evil

spirit, a magician (cheerfully) lends his assistance.

15. A virtuous man, though he decline (in his fortune) show, becomes himself more handsome in his behaviour. We see that a fire-brand, though it be turned down, makes its flame ascend (or go upwards).

- श्राक्ष. ज्यार्ट्रेची. विरास्तर, यंद्राया। श्रीप्तर, जा. हुँचि.श्रुच, यंत्रिची.सा. लुशा। यंप्तर, यंद्राक्ष, त्यराक्ष, चेटावंशाश्चिट,। चेटाच, चेटाच, चोवंश, च. लाटा।
 - स्रोत्तरा. देशका. टेचोट.च. शुंटे. शु.देश। टे. चोकुंश. शुट.चाटु. बूर. व्या. चुेश। टहचो.हेथ. चोलंथ.टे. चशुट.वेशका. टेचोट। चेत्रचे. कु. श्रेथ.चेचाश. टेचोट.चटु.चैं।
 - रे. ७ूश. ग्रेश्टे. चियःतर. ठर्मेर॥ बै.शर्ट. शु.ट्रेम. जुर्मश. यश्चेशश. ग्रेट.। ठहुम.टुंब. ग्रेथ. ज. चियःतर. मोशप। 18 रेश.तर्ट. जूब.टेब. बैश.मीर. ग्रेट.।

16. A virtuous prince, though he be at a far distance, from far also does favourably protect his own followers. By the gathering together of big clouds in the atmosphere, the corn of the field more increases.

17. During life, renown (or a good name) is the cause of joy; in the other world, happiness is (man's) delight, in wealth only, without those two things, a wise man can have no pleasure.

18. Excellent qualities, though be exonerated, spread and become visible everywhere. The blossoms of the nutmeg tree, though grown dry, diffuse on all sides their sweet scent.

- मार्थ्या मी दूर-ये. चार-रेपट- शक्रो। धुन्मा जाम-प्रेर. द्वेश-तर- शह्स। स्थान, चार-रे. झुश-तर- चार्गेर।
- देशता रेजाया भाषता तपु. सेवोश ॥ हे. शकूची. रेजाया प्रधी. श्मीचोशा है। श.मे. रेजाया श्रष्टची. श्मी. यज्ञता। रूपे. पुटा रेजाया प्रचेशानीश्मरः।
- बुट. ज. श.चूर. विट. चुट. ग्रुट। विट. ज. श.चूर. विट. चुट. ग्रुट। विश्वा घरेश. लट. हुर. चुट.।

19. A king is great in his dominions; a virtuous man is respected withersoever he goes. A flower is beautiful, generally, for a high day. A gem for a head ornament is everywhere esteemed.

20. A hen, when at rest, has much fruit; a peacock, when it remains still, has a handsome tail; a gentle horse has a swift pace; the quietness of a holy man is the sign of his being a wise

21. Though equal benefits be conferred on the excellent and the vulgar, the return of those kindnesses is not equal. Though there has been no difference in the seed sown in a field, yet there is an immense variety in the crop.

22 यश्चित्र श्रीत व. श्री क्षेत्र प्रश्च व्रुप्त । श्रीत्य १ श्री यज्ञत श्री व. तम्प्ता त्रीत्य १ श्री यज्ञत श्री व. तम्प्ता त्रीत्य श्रीत्य श्रीत्य श्रीत्य व्रुप्त ।

22. Keep up (preserve) your noble descent by your conduct—when your practice is bad, your birth is of no value. The sandal-wood has a fine scent, but, if a man reduces it to charcoal, who will buy it?

23. The great, though sometimes they be distressed (or disgraced) for a while, have no reason to be grieved. The moon, though she be eclipsed for a while by the planet, yet soon appears

24. If a great man treats kindly an enemy, that very enemy comes with kindness into his power. The first universal monarch since he protected all, was elevated to that dignity by all.

25. The holy man, though he be distressed, does not eat of the food mixed with wickedness. The lion, though hungry, will not eat of the unclean vomiting.

26. The holy man, though it may cost him his life, how will he desist from what is good by itself? The colour of fine

gold will not change, though it be burnt and cut.

27. Though low-minded men be wrathful (angry) to the holy men—but how would these, in return, become angry with them? Though the jackal utter a fustian language, yet the king of the deer protects him mercifully.

यद्या केंद्र केला क्षेत्र दशका शुंद वर्डवा वर्गुर मी दशद्यासेद। त्यव चेया देव केव या यह भी समाय दुस व्यन शु विमा शुरा। वर्षेर्-राक्षः निवित्वरः क्षेः वर्गुराव। श्चरायक्षा के. र्यार. क्ष. प्रसीर. ब्रुटा रट. मी. लूबे. २व. जुर्माश्रासर. मोबंश। श्चे.चू.रथाराष्ट्र, शक्रव.कुर, जूब।। देवादा दृदः वे अर्घः स्ता वस वस्यते विद्यार्श्वेत विद्यार्श्वेत सेत्। B. 보는 Bu. 성실도와 ME. I इ.क्.सूर्यपु. वंशावर लुवे॥

28. People seek to find fault with the excellent, and not with the low men. They look with astonishment to costly longings, but who would do so to a fire-brand?

29. Not to be cheered up by praise; not to be grieved by shame—but to know well his own perfections, is the characteris-

tic sign of an excellent man.

30. Those are no vain riches that are gotten by knowledge, strength and skill. The dog and the cat, though they stand erect, are living samples of impudence.

- वर्माया केर.ज. श्र. शहरासस॥ इ.स्प्र. केर. ग्रे.ष्ट्रायस्य। इ.स्प्र. केर. ग्रे.ष्ट्रायस्य।
- है. ट्रांब. हेट. ग्री. चे.च. श्रीच॥ ट्रांबे. ट्रांबेट. प्रांच्ट. चाल्र्च. च्रांथा प्रांच्ट. पा. ट्रंब.च्रीश. चश्चेटश. च्रीट.घ। 35 ह.के.ह.केट. हे.ट्रांब. च्रीश।
- श्रामत. पा. के.श. चंट.च.थे। श्रामश्राम. चांलंब. देची श्री. लुश. कुं। श्रामश्राम. कुंश. चंट्र.शर।

क्र- अट. लट. अब्रूट. श्रु.यचीर ॥ क्र-राथराज्ञे । क

31. It is the master's greatness, if his servants are in every respect well satisfied. The embellishments put on a horse, are they no ornaments for the master himself?

32. As the master takes care of, and kindly protects his servents (or subjects) so are managed the master's affairs also

by the servants.

33. At the same place, where the great Lord (Buddha) is present, who would acknowledge any other wise men.? When the sun has arisen, though there be many distinguished stars in the heaven, none of them is visible.

वेट.टे. पंचव. च. फू.क्ट. उट्टी। पंचव. के. हु.केट. चष्ट्रियो. चीट.ग्रीट.। क्षेत्रांतर. ब्रिटे. जन्न. एवं.तट. पंचीट। अक्षेत्रांतर. क्रिटे. क्र्य. ग्रीट.।

중. 신문, 청군, 소. 소문, 원소비, 호호비
 寸성자 여, 호소, 검소, 남, 전취소, 여도, 1
 32 건설소 너, Ñ소, 학생, 참소, 양성기

शुर-वशः स्नेर-कुचः देजारे. प्रूचा। बुटः यत्रः प्रू च्येरः पचर-वर्षः बुटः। एव-वशः स्नेर-कुचः चिक्रमः जः पह्यशः। १३६ कुर-तूशः पचर-वशः चर्मेव-वर्षः चूँश।

III. THE FOOL (MEAN, LOW, WICKED, BAD) (A)

34. A wicked man, though he gets riches, grows worse in his conduct. A stream howsoever it be turned back, yet endeavours to flow downwards.

35. Though a wicked man appears good in his conduct, it is but a hypocritical life. Though a crystal be made to have the colour of a gem, yet, when put in water, it shows its own colour.

36. A great man's wise arrangements are annihilated in a moment by wicked men. A corn-field cultivated for years and months by the husbandmen, is suddenly destroyed by a hail.

श. चार्यट. चीलरे. ज. उत्तरंदश. उद्धेरे॥ चिर्देश. शु.चीब्द. झूश.राजु. श्रंथे। चीट. जुद. चीलरे. ज. उज़्रेंट.तर.जुरे।

 ट्रांसुंश. कीया. ट्रट. लाट. चश्चर. छुश. चीयाश ।

 ट्रांसुंश. कीय. ट्रट. चश्चेश.च.लूश ।

 ट्रेंद.श्रेशश. ट्र.लाट. श्रेशश.चर. पचीर ।

 38 थिंद.च्र. चे.च.ण. श्रेर.थे ।

सैंचायर्र्डल. सेंट. हुंट. झेंच.च. सहूट.॥ चोर्ट्ड. चींश. चटेच. 'तप्ट. झें.च्. पंचार। चे.च. सेंचा.चर्डल. पंचर.खुचा. सेंच। 38 क्ट्रंटड. च. चटे.च. पंट्रंट. चढुडे.रें।

37. In general, a bad man rubs on others the defects which he has in himself. The crow, after having eaten some unclean thing, earnestly rubs her bill on a clean ground.

38. If a business be committed to a fool, it will fall short, and the fool himself will be crushed under it. The fox-born, being elected king, it is said, destroyed his distressed train also.

39. The foolish man (stupid) when he wishes for happiness, works only on his distress. Some one occupied by an evil spirit, when he wishes to be freed from pain, deprives himself of life.

- 42 विकास प्रमास स्थान स्थान हो।

 स्थान स्
- लंड्स. क्यं. ची. च.जाट. कारी। टूचा. टेट. डूचा.चेका अंटे.बे. काट.। योधका. चंत्रु. कार्येश्व. बिका.बुट. उद्देर।

40. The action of a man, who cares nothing for the welfare of others, is like that of a beast. Though he is an associate at eating and drinking, but he is unable to make them ready (or prepare).

41. He that makes no reflection on what is useful and the contrary, and does not improve his understanding and experience, is a swine without hair, that seeks only to fill his belly.

42. Some one makes most among the fool, but before the wise, he shrinks back. Though he has no hump and dewlap, yet he is a beast that has his upper teeth.

- सहमास सुर चंद्र ही. चंद्र सुर्थ। न्यूस रट चंद्र चंद्र चंद्र स्ट्र न्यूस रह चंद्र चंद्र सुर्थ सट दंस। सहमास चंद्र चंद्र संद्र चंद्र स्ट्र
- 題: 愛た. 去山.七郎. 知山.五.郑 !! 愛た. 愛た. 恕. 豆솿. 由とむ. 郑.寿! 対美之. 愛た. 炎丈. 引が. と由にむ. 郑 ! -** 教山. 景紅. 祭.吹紅. と由に. 郑.寿!
- सूर्यक्ष क्षेत्र. मी. वे. का. चांशेका. जूर ॥ मूथाता. चोट.मी. का. नेव.तका। कृष्युं, कृष. काट. अथवात्तर. विचीर। कृष्युं, कृष. व्यक्त. धिंब.नूं, विकालुब. क्षे।

43. He hastes to where there is meat and drink; but if you give him some business to do, he runs away; though he can speak and laugh, yet he is an old dog without a tail.

44. It is easy to fill with water a beast's (or ox's) footstep—a small treasury may easily be filled with money; to sow a little field with corn seed, requires not much labour; it is easy to satisfy with science a little understanding.

45. A proud foolish promiser, though he be great, will be defeated. By having given a pace of ground istob-l,dan) Balarama has lost the three earths—(worlds).

- 지도성, 다. 어리,다. 첫만,다고, 성빛 !! 됐, 성롯식, 역소, 같다. 크성, 회원, 역됐之 ! 됐어,성롯식다. 교수,다고, 성적되어 ! 48 웰산맛,성, 원다구, 역보점, 다. 다시 !
- मृत्मा, केशास्य, कृष, वृष, श्रुम्पाश ॥ नाम्थ, ग्री, लीकारी, रेचीय, श्री,तारी। लूपरेय, क्य, ज, श्रेचात्तर, श्रीत्यी।
- स्थानमा स्थान्य स्थान स्यान स्थान स्यान स्थान स

46. In the estimation of ignorant people, a monkey-catcher is more preferable than a wise man—when that is served with butter and meat, this is sent empty handed away.

47. Some illiterate men are more inimical to a learned man. It is said, if in a snowy country, during the winter, grows

up (or comes forth) any corn stalk, it is an unlucky omen.

48. Some that are ill-versed in science, will find fault with them that are well founded in it. In some islands it is counted for a defect in members, if one has not a goitre. म्ट्रिस्यायः या श्रेटः श्रेहि॥ इ.च. ष्ट्रियटः श्रेहियाय। भ्रूपः अस्यायः येश्वयः क्ष्यशः।

चलुक् प्रचटः चीट् सुटे, सूक्, लेक प्रक्रिशा सुक्ष पी. प्रि.स. सम्बाख्यः समस्। स्राप्त क्रामा चुटिया चीत्। क्रामा स्याप्त सुविष्य प्रचार।

हा सुक्षार्यक्षात्र महिना मोश पर्नेण॥ स्राट होत् सुप्यास्त्र हिन्द सुट्याय। स्राट स्राट र्स्नेप्ल, र्यट्ये, रस्ते। व्याप्त स्राट्य स्राच्ये स्राच स्राच्ये स्राच्ये स्राच्ये स्राच्ये स्राच स्राच्ये स्राच्ये स्र

49. They that know only imperfectly the religious rites, contemn those that perform them exactly. In the country of Chara, he that walks on two feet, is not counted for a man.

50. Some that perform wrongly the religious ceremonies, mark them that do exercise them accurately. Those men that have a head like a dog, contemptuously say, that he, who has a handsome face, is a woman.

51. Foolish men, wanting understanding, though they be many, go full into the power of the enemy. One intelligent hare has subdued a whole herd of strong elephants.

- 25 प्रसन्त स्ट्रिंट कुलस थेदा प्रतिहत थे देस भटा प्रतिहत से देस भटा प्रतिहत से देस स्ट्रिंट कुटा
 - मुक्त महेमा महिस एवं मिंव क्षस्य। भूमा सेमा महिस एवं मिंव क्षस्य। महेन मुं नश्चरम माम क्ष्री महिन मुं नश्चरम माम क्ष्री
 - देशक्षित. श्र.म. क्षेट. खुंश. चीचेश। वे.ह्रचे. चोडेश. ग्रीश चडेट. चन्त्र। भे.ट्र. थंश.धुंचे. शुंश्य. ३थथ। ११ चैंथ.टे. चोड्य.चींश. चभेंट. रेच्राश.चंद्र।

52. It is seldom that riches without understanding were advantageous to any one. The all-bestowing cow's milk (as the common proverb is) is sucked up by the calf.

53. Foolish men, that amass riches, never think on, that they have their kinsfolk (or relations). After having amassed wealth, by all means of wickedness and cursing, they die away like the rats.

54. He that wants always to be defended (or supported) by others, at last, certainly shall fall. It is said, the tortoise, that was carried by two crows, fell down on the ground.

- बिश. बुट. हुश.पर्यंट. चिंश.तु. स्वाशा। शट्यश्वेश. शहूट.य. श्वेर.ताट. पर्ट्रा ट्र.श्वश्वर. चारेश. ज. शश्वर.श्व.पहूर्या यबट.ट्य. श्व.जेश. रूथ.येश. यहरी
- र्मार.च. शहराय. धयश. ग्रीश. पहुंसा। चचर.चरेंट. शहराय. थथ.ग्रीश. पहेंचा। -कूंचा. थ. ट्रे.जू. श्रे.पट्टेंथ.ग्रेट्री। १६ रशिट.कूंचाश. पच्चे.थ. शहचा.श्रेंथ.जा।

श्रुक् यहनाया हो। ३

हीं ते. केट. में हे. बंश हीट. ॥ यमेश.च. हेना.मो. टर.से. लुश। रूमश.चंश. केट. यश. चुज.मोश.मार्चेश। ११

55. Not to understand what good and bad is; to forget a kindness done to one; not to marvel at what is marvellous; to ask again what one has clearly perceived; to think and to follow one from behind: are the characteristic signs of a foolish man.

56. When the troops are advancing, he is in the rear; when they retire, he goes on the front; where there is meat and

drink, he endeavours by all means to enter there

IV. THE MIXED CHARACTER (OF THE WISE AND OF THE FOOL) (SAUS)

57. A mean fellow, though he be rich, is outdone by a little man of noble descent—when the hungry tiger attered a deep sound, the monkey fell down from the top of a tree.

ब्रिन्स ब्रिन्स स्था ग्राम्स क्षेत्र व्या ग्राम्स क्ष्य स्था स्थानम व्याप्त स्था स्थानम व्याप्त स्था स्थानम व्याप्त स्था स्थानम व्याप्त स्थानम व्याप्त स्थानम व्याप्त स्थानम व्याप्त स्थानम स्थानम व्याप्त स्थानम स्याप्त स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्याप्त स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्यापत स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्थानम स्था

मी. शक्ष् श्र.ध्या प्रस्तिमा ।।

श्राप्त स्मान्या प्रमुक्त ।

श्राप्त स्मान्या प्रमुक्त ।

श्राप्त स्मान्या प्रमुक्त ।

श्राप्त स्मान्या प्रमुक्त ।

श्राप्त स्मान्या सम्मान्य ।

सः हैन स्था स्वास सः स्टा। श्रीतिनास्त् नेन्जी न्यास्त्रीत् है। स्रीतिनास्त् नेन्जी न्यास्त्रीत्। स्रीतिनास्त्रीत् स्थानस्य

seeps them secret within himself. The straw swins on the surface of water, but a gem, though placed upon it, sinks.

59. They, that have little learning, have great pride; when grown wise, they are quiet. Torrents make always much noise, but it is seldom that the Ocean roars.

80). It is always the low-minded men that speak discinfully of the holy men; these never do so to them. The lion defends the foxes, but the fox rises against the fox 61 **584** EN DE 455 4 61 दशक था यर्देशक संभायर रहा। मांत्रुन रिज. स. भट. मांबे. देश. ग्रेश। मि सर मलुन रे पन मनुष्या समस्य या स्पूर ह्या ग्रीय अवस्ता धिंदे ग्रापा श्रुवे प्रमाद हुना लुदा रेव से के अस निका नेर्रेन नेतुर। मियानीरेचा जन्म बुख्या गीय भुरा। हुना, हुर्. बनाशव. नायका ग्रीट. अशश। रुभः राः मुँटः वः मवशः ग्रेटः रैजा वसारा गु. मञ्ज नाइत हिं य रदा। दे अक्ट्रमा मूटिक रिया या अहिटा।

61. Though a generous man is angry against you, he is gentle if you bow down before him; but a low-minded man is more haughty if you yield to him. Gold and silver, though hard, may be melted, but a dog's ordure will stink, if put into fire.

62. A wise man consists entirely of perfections. A fool has only his defects. With precious metals you may pay all your expenses from a venomous serpent nothing but distress can be expected.

63. A wicked man, though he abides in a forest is mean; a virtuous man, though he resides in a town, is gentle. We see that a wild beast of the forest is fierce, and a fine house in the town is gentle.

- शुर्वे चे चीवर ज हंश टर चोट्टा। भवे रट ची जेशन ट्रेंग। भुर्वे टरंत चीवर शुरे ठक्टा। १६ श्रेश शक्ता रटची शुर्वे ज हो।
- वृष्टः स्रेथः स्टाशः स्थः स्टाम्बिदः सर्ग्रेम्।।
 त्यस्य स्वतः वृष्टः मेशः स्टाम्बदः स्युष्टः।
 दर्शः स्टारं स्थः स्थः स्थः स्याविदः स्याविदः स्याविदः।
 हर्षः स्थः स्टारं स्थः स्थः स्थः स्थः।
- स्त्रः स्ट्रेस्स्य स्त्रः स्टः स्रः प्रः । स्तः केदः श्लीटःनुः स्टः दशः प्रनः। स्तः स्त्रः स्त्रः स्त्रः स्तः। स्तः स्त्रः स्त्रः स्त्रः स्तः।

64. An excellent man looks only on his own defects, a bad man seeks fault only with others. The peacock judges of his own body —a bat gives ill omens to others.

65. An excellent man, by his gentleness, preserves both himself and others; a bad man causes pain both to himself and to others by his stiffness. A fruit tree keeps (nourishes) both itself and others; a dry tree, by its stiffness cumbers both itself and others.

66. As long as you have wealth, every one is your kinsman, if you are declined, every one is your foe. The island of precious metals is visited from far distance—when the lake (or sea) is dried up every one leaves it off.

पर्ने य वेश पर्ने के र्या के विश मूंश, कट. द्रभश. शु. शूर. ४ छेर। क्ष्य गर्भाय विश्वश्रादाया यतः होतः मारः ध्रेवः देशः यः होत्।। 68 लंब रब खबरा लंब रब था रमादः योः छेर्वः ५वः योदः इससः य्रव। ब्रिट. है. पहुंबरा शुर्हेची जी न्नादः यो पः वः ह्याः ने ख्रा श्रीमद्या. ता. श्रीमद्या. तपु.यट.ये. शहूश। त्रुशं, श्रीयश्वारा, कु.जैर, मूं। र्दनः दनः मार्शरः यशः रेनः के य।

67. It is only by narrow-minded men that such distinction is made: this is our friend, this is our enemy. A liberal man is affectionate towards all—it is uncertain, who may yet be useful to us.

त्रा श्राय वर. वेश प. हुंश।

68. Learned men delight in science; the ignorant do not so. Honey-gathering bees resort to flowers; but not the flesh-fly.

69. A learned man is beautiful among learned men; how can the wise be understood by the fool? See, how sandal-wood, that is more precious than gold, is by foolish people reduced to coal.

मी. भक्ष अंदार मीलर क्षार मीला। मि. मेर मी.ब्र. चट्टे चट्टे चर्टे चरे चरे चर्टे चरे चरे चर्टे चरे चर्टे चरे चर्टे चरे चर्टे चरे चर्टे चरे

हुर. रा. जू. थंश. ४८. योथ. शुना। विश. यू. पंतुंद्र. यद. ग्रीट. कू. लट.। जुनांश. यत्तेर. नार्थानीश. नांध्य.रेनार.तुर। श्रापत्र. रा. तुंदर्रे. ग्रीर.ब. लट.।

8: क्षेत्र, द्वेला झेंस्ट्रेंट पहना। हो: हब रेगे. ला पिट्सा पंडेचशहे। ला ला धा झें हुंबे. ला पंतर।

70. A wise man knows the manner of his action; the fool follows another's authority. When an old dog has barked, the others run without there being the least reason therefor.

71. A wise man, in his very declined state, also affords pleasure to others, by his elegant sayings—a fool when growing violent also consumes himself and others by his quarrelling.

72. Some place perfection in speaking others are silent and penetrate into the meaning. A had dog atters first a moise to the enemy a cat catches tecttly a duck.

मेर्चुचे हैं. पहेंशलट. क्ट्र्स मंध्रें। हैं. देशका मूंक.पीट. शुश्रश. क्वे. शैंटः। हैं.चूं. एवं.त. शहर. लट. मध्रें। 13 देशत. चूंल. लट. तथे. त. हैंवे।

द्धाः बदः दशः ग्रीः सर्वेः दशदः ग्रेदः। क्षेत्रः दाः गीयः देः दश्चैरः क्ष्माः सदाः क्षेत्रः दश्चाः द्वाः स्वेतः स्वेतः स्वेतः। क्षेत्रः दशः दशः वेतः स्वेतः स्वेतः।

द्विमाक्षा श्री. चेका. हे. मीट्या. ट्या. टेक्सा । है. श्री. क्र्या. ये. क्र्या. टेय. थेट । है. श्री. हि. श्री. है. क्र. मीय. मीटारा।

74. An excellent man, like the precious metal, is, in every respect, invariable—a villain, like the beam of a balance, is always varying somewhat up—and downwards.

^{73.} Though a virtuous man disputes, yet there exists adventage thereof; a fool causes damage by his friendship also. Though the gods be angry yet they defend the animate beings. The lord of death, though he smiles, yet kills an enemy.

^{75.} As long as one is modest, he is adorned with the chief quality—when modesty is gone, the good qualities become pertial and an ill rumour spreads about.

76 द्वारा म वर्डेश भेन्। यन यन् वृत्। रेशके. तर. रुंश. ग्रीट. जुर्चा. चर. चन्दे। मिया पर्य. संस. ज. चर्षेश. मिट. चर्ड्र। वक्रः वर्मा सक्रेरः गुप्तः मह्यर्यास्म् ॥ ११ मेरुमे. ज. बर्धार. पंगेर.य.लूश। वे.च. चालवे. पा. चार्चेर.चा. होर। श्चरः भरतः गुरुर।

18 क्रेश.स.**चेश**. मीट. ट्रेब्. पर्मेय.स.। वैट. लट. शक्ति. क्षश्च. नाजर्शेयां जुबाश घर वस्त्रिवश ग्रीट रेव सूर सर। ट्रे.ज. भीचरा. देशरा. मिजाय.सुट्री।

मिल मेर स्वीर मी यर स खिसा ।

76. A virtuous man gives, without hypocrisy, an upright instruction—if you ask a villain, he will inform you wrong. Though you slight a Bodhisatwa, he is merciful to you—though you bestow praise on Yama (the lord of death) he is yet your destroyer.

77. What is useful to one, may sometimes be hurtful to When the moon rises the Kumuda opens and the

Padma flower shrinks up.

Though, by wicked acts one may reach his aim; yet a wise man never resorts to such means. Wise men are not ashamed, if they can also not have their concern, provided they have righteously endeavoured therefor.

- चकर. रट. ह्यूर.चट्.विर.चर.ह्यूश। रस्थ.च.र.चे. ह्य. चर्नेस.च.र..। १८. रट. थे. श्र्य.च.ल। १८. रस. च.र.चे. र...चर्नेस.च.ह्या।
- सर.श. चढुर.टे. क्ज. चर. ठचीर।। रेशव. त. जब. हुना. म्रेट.चीर.व। च्य. चढुर. टे. लट. ट्र. ठचीटा। १० रेशत.इ.ढुना म्रेट्चीर.मीटा।
- श्राः चीः वचीत्श्रःथः चट्टीः चटः अत्र॥ सः श्लेशः वचीत्श्रःथः ट्रेचोशः चशः चैतः। रथःतः च्युंद्रःथः ट्रेजाचप्टः च्रै। शः देश्वः तः वचुंद्रःथः ट्रेचोशः चप्टः च्रै।

79. It is difficult to make dissension amongst the virtuousbut it is easy to reconcile them—low people can easily be separated, but difficulty reconciled. See what a difference there is between the sandal-tree, and the coal made of its wood.

80. Though a virtuous man decline for awhile, yet, like the increasing moon, he rises again—if a low man once is decayed

he will be extinguished, like a lamp.

81. Wealth, to a low man, is a cause of pride,—to a virtuous man it is that of gentleness (or, humbleness). The foxborn, when he has filled his belly, behaves proudly, the lion, when his belly is full takes his repose.

से. अष्ट्र- ध्रीयश्च- याक्ष- पची- ॥
स्मान्त्र- क्ष- स्मान्तः प्रस्त- पची- ॥
स्मान्त्र- क्ष- स्मान्तः प्रस्त- पची- ॥
स्मान्त्र- क्ष- स्मान्तः ।
स्मान्त्र- स्मान्तः स्मान्तः ।
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82. A virtuous prince shows more affection to his subjects, when he finds an enemy. A mother is more grieved on account her diseased child.

भुक्त नम नमें श्रुरिया मुन्दा।

मि.श्र. वैसाश. राष्ट्र. साट. जनारा

मा हैते. रे. क्या परीटाम हुंस।

83. A good person, if he associates with a bad man, will be infected by him. The Ganges water, though very pleasing to the taste, when it has reached the sea, becomes brinish.

84 If a low-principled man keeps a holy person, his manners become like to those of a holy personage. See what a traggant scent has the person who has anointed himself with

- हीत्राक्षान्यस्याद्याक्षे । ४ दीटः यत्रा कृटाटुः योग्रायः क्षेत्र । दीटः यत्रा कृटाटुः योग्रायः क्षेत्र । इस्त्र येत् कृतः यद्याः कृटा क्षेत्र यद्याः यद्य ।
- क्षा त्ये. चोट्ट. चोश. टेचोट. वश. शुरी। शुरु. चे. चश्चेत. वश. चूट्. त.वृ। रूट. पट्टे. लूब. चीश. चौश. होट. शुरी। १८ चोल्.वर. श्रेय.तर. श्री.च.वृ।
- स्ट्रियो, ज्ञेश, श्रधर, चीर्थर, चींश, चशरी। चोज्ञेची, जिंचीश, मूर्थि, चट्ट, चूट्-चेंट्री इ. धुनी, पंचीय, चीट, चंद्रभर, चर्ण्या। इ. धुनी, पंचीय, चीट, चंद्रभर, चर्ण्या।
- 85. As the Riqab (S. Sumeru) is not to be moved by any creature, so the great self-one (the excellent man) stands firm. As a small piece of cotton is easily moved, so the practice of a low-minded man is greatly changing and turning.

EVIL PRACTICES (55 1)

86. When a cunning person speaks fair, it is for his own interest not out of respect for others; the laughing voice of the night-bird is an ill omen, it proceeds not from joy.

87. If a man grows too famous, on account of his great advancement, though he endures for a while, yet at last he is destroyed. The ass that was covered with the skin of a leopard after having eaten up one man's standing corn, was slain by another.

- सूचा, ब. चाक्का, बंशका, चींच, टी. सैचा॥ इ. झे. 'तुब, टी. खुचा, चा. लूका। चिटा, चत्रुं, लाहुचा, चींकाचाटेटा। 88 कुंचा हुँदें, हुंचूर, श्रुंका चा टेटा।
- भ्रामका सा की हुना सट टे. जुना। टैना श्रीमा हुर विश्वा श्रमी मैदलटा। श्रीच्यु रटा चहुने टबेस श्रटा। १८० मोगा है हुनोया लूटेब लटा।
- ह.रे.चूच. अथश. चर. टचिर. च. लूच॥ चालूचा. टाहूर. स्चार्ट. श्रेच. श्रेट.च। टर्ट्र. चश. ह्. क्. अथश. चर.चुर। ७० ड्रेचश. चश. लूच. २च. अथश. टचिर.बुंट.।

88. They that have chosen a wicked man for their king, they that dwell in a house whose upper roof is ruinous, or under a rock whose summit threatens to fall, are in continual fear.

89. Though a man is learned, but if he is by nature bad, avoid him. Though a venomous serpent has a gem on his head, what wise man would take him into his bosom?

90. By arrogance, good qualities are diminished; by lust modesty is obfuscated. By a continual railing at his servants,

the master loses his authority.

- ट्रे. त्रु. कूचा चढुर. चुट. य. कैट.॥ इस्य य. श्रोचश. य. कुट. ट्योट. है। ट्रेटचा चश. मिट. ४४. य. ट्यूर। श. चर. वट. हैं.च. ट्यूर. य. है।
- मूं स्ट पर्या सा सा र्योर मुटेर स्टा। प्रा स्था सा सा क्षेत्र पुटा रूटा। स्री क्षा सा र्या पक्षिम क्षेत्र।

91. It is a rare thing to find one who can give good advice, but it is more rare to find one who would listen (to advice)—difficult it is to find an expert physician, few are they that would act according to his advice.

92. Judge not before you have examined. It often happens that an upright man, if he loses his cause, is thought to be

a knave. He that acts with discretion, has many enemies.

93. In whatever manner you fashion a bad man, it is impossible to make his nature good—you may wash the coal with all the zeal you will, but it is impossible to give it a white colour.

- मार्क्ष, मोक्ष, चर्णमा तर, चेक्ष, च, धट,॥ प्रच, च, बेशका, जामशिमा, मुक्ष,थ। शहर, चर्णका, लुब, मोट, लूर,थू, चरेथ। क्ष मोबेट, एवं बुराज, मोद्रुका पुह्यमा।
- स्या के हे हमा महिस्स मिर प्रमेश । रमा के हे हमा महिस मिर प्रमेश मदी। रमा के हे हमा महिस मर प्रमेश मदी।

94. An ill-principled man, who is fond of riches, though he be a friend, is not of a firm mind. There are many that have been destroyed by their own relations, in consequence of their having been bribed by the great.

95. It is easy to overcome those enemies that announce their plans of lusting (or injuring). But how are those to be subdued who advise a salutary retreat ?

VI THE NATURAL WAY OR MANNER (OF MEN'S ACTIONS).

96. If one should happen to be chosen for a ruler, it is seiden that he could know what was to be done. We may look on others with our own eyes, but we want a looking glass, when we wish to view ourselves.

कुरा चुन्ने श्रुट्यः विष र र वेटा। श्रामद्भे, ज. झे. चोश्रंश, श्राट, थे. लाट.। ट्रेंट. चोश्रया है. 🖺 के.री. शुर्गा चार. बुचा. चार्चूर. घर. चुर. वेंश्राय । रेक्स वर्षा पर हेर. पर वैशा अमी में स्रियन पर्देश राजी। मैज.राहा. मैज. होरे. हीर तर. रेहा। 99 हिंद, हा. हिंद देश टेट हा. लुझ। हुन्दरः वयदशः ग्रीः देवः गुवः सुव। सर्प. वे. श्रोपश. तश. पत्राटश. चीर.वे। माराजा चरमाश्रा दा सूचा दा करा।

97. Though there be very many kings, yet there are very few of them that govern with righteousness. Though there is many a body of the gods in the heaven, yet there are none so brilliant in light as the sun and moon.

18. He that can do mischief, can do also good. A crowned monarch may bestow on one a whole kingdom.

99. By an upright, intelligent minister both the Sovereign and the subjects can be rendered, in all respects, happy An arrow, when shot by a dexterous man, strikes the mark aimed at

श्रदः हो महिमा नु हो अधुन्त। क्रेंचश. क्ट. मुश. मीट. दूब. कुब. प्रमीव। ह्या. क्ष्मांश. मूर्या. क्ष्मांश. पर्यंश. तश! श्राट. मुद्रि. स्नुमु. वसर. हुस. मीमास।। लिया प्रेश हिंदा या देर यह शी भवें. हुंचरा. कंब. लट. मेंट. तर. जेंचेंट! मिट. त्. चुंबर्टे. हुंचश. र्स्ट. लट.। 레다. 통. 약다. 2학, 건설, 건설상, 건설생 II 105 ८. मिज. क्रुप्र.च. क्रुट. क्रुक्र.थ। कुरे, तुं, वंशका ग्रीट, ब्रुजामीका नार्व्य। र्टेट. रेपोर. चुरारे. जेश. कट. लटा। कः श्वर केंद्र चेंदिः मनेदायः प्रदा

100. If many consent together, great things may be performed even by little forces. It is said: a lion's whelp was killed by an assembled multitude of ants (or pismires).

101. He that is indolent and deficient in exertion, though he be strong and robust, shall decay. An elephant, though he be

very strong, is treated, by his little driver, as a slave.

102. When haughtiness is carried too far, even

102. When haughtiness is carried too far, even great men will be overpowered; though the white tortoise (fish) has only a little body, yet is he the destroyer of a large crocodile.

प्रकृष्ट सुन् हुना मीश श्रुमा श्रेमा श्रेमा हुना हुना हुना मीश श्रुमा श्रेमा श्रेमा श्रेमा श्रेमा श्रेमा श्रेमा श्रेमा श्रेमा स्था श्रेमा श्र

 경소, 평소, 완성, 학생성, 업환네. 대소, 성급소 II

 황, 액성, 년선, 평소, 석소, 건석 I

 핵심, 대성, 동네성, 회생, 비생산, 대, 휄씨 I

 학 평균, 전성, 양소, 소대, 황소, 건대 I

चिंद्र: यद्र, डिचा.टे. श्रेय, ज्रेश, उट्टेय।। चे.अष्ट्र्यंट, युद्र-दी, द्र्य, ज्रेश, युद्रा। चे.अष्ट्र्यंट, युद्र-दी, द्र्य, ज्रेश, युद्रा। व्यव्हर्यंट, युद्र-दी, द्र्य, ज्रिश, यहेय।

103. The great have no need to be arrogant; the arrogance of the mean is futile. A gem wants no recommendation; none would be a counterfeit jewel, though it be highly extolled (or praised).

104. Men, commonly, are injured by men of the like kind (tribe) with themselves. By the appearing of sanshine, all

other luminous bodies are offuscated.

105. Keep him from whom you derive advantage, though he is your enemy. Reject him that hurts you, though he be your relation. Buy, at whatever price, a jewel, brought from sea. Drive out, by medicine, the disease that is in your inward parts.

हैंथ. क्ष्मश्च. चोल्. खुट. टेचैंचाझे. हैंचा॥ क्ष. लुका. लूटकाशे. चोट. चप्ट. षष्ट्र्। हैंद्रि. टेचोका. चप्ट. क्ष्म. टेचेंट. हूंब्। 109 क्ट.टे. क्टाजर. टचेंट. टचेंट.थी.

107 स्त्र द्वा त्रीक स्त्र न्योंक प्रश्ना वर्षेका। स्त्र द्वा स्त्रपट स्त्रेशाय स्त्रा स्त्र द्वा स्त्रपट स्त्रेशाय स्त्रा स्त्र द्वा त्रीक स्त्र न्योंक स्त्रा

고리, 교다. 정확의, 행치구, 선원소॥ 는 크위, 함, 열, 구매구, 성원소॥ 위투선·및, 왕구, 학위, 건대, 첫보기 기의 건대전, 왕구, 학위, 건대, 첫구기

106. When a man has some wealth within, he shows it with pride in his externals. When the clouds are full of water, then they move and make a noise.

107. It is rare to find one who is all perfection; but it is rare also to find one who is destitute of every good quality. A wise man will keep him who leans more to virtue than to vice.

108. It is doubtful at first, whether a person is our enemy or friend. Meat, if not properly digested, becomes poison; but poison also, if one knows how to use it, may turn to medicine.

रेश. चक्का. त.वु. ४कुट. चटु.सैं॥ वैथ. शूट.च.वु. <u>कु</u>टे. ता. हुं। चिथ. रेचट. शेशश. करे. शेंचो. चर्निण. लुवे। 100 रट. रेचट. शेशश. करे. घटे. च.हें।

८८ंच. क्यांश. ग्रीब.म्रीश. श्रॅटश. खुश्च.म्योचांश ॥ सिर्चाश.म्रीउ. श्रांचश. ग्रीट. श्री.सुट.चश। २. जियांश. टबे.चे. ग्रीब.म्रीश. चथेश। 110 बट.चे. लूब.२व. ग्रीब. कंब. लट.।

बुर. कुब. ट्यूब. ब. हुब.टट. कु॥ ब्रै.श. में.जश. शह्ट.व. शहूश। मेज. तुं. सैचा.टे. पटेचा. व. शहूश। गा। शिव.तु. श्री.च. वेट.व. शहूश।

109. To be one's own master, is always counted as happiness; to be in the power of others, is always held as misery. Common things are the cause of quarrels. We are bound, if we have promised a thing.

110. You may have, inwardly, all good qualities, but, if you have not a proper dress, you are despised by all. Though the bat is a prudent bird, yet since he has no feather, it is said,

he is rejected by all winged animals.

111. A foolish man is pleasing, when he speaks but little; a king is dignified when he keeps secluded; imposing spectacles are beautiful if viewed at a far distance; a jewel, if rare, fetches a great price.

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पद्मिता हुंदे. तका. पर्वेट.च. थट.॥ पह्मी. हुंदे. ब्रुट्ट.च. तका. कुट.वूं। ट्रे. कुट. जेपूर्व. चतु. चैं.चे. पचीटा.

स्ट्रिंग, चैंट्यंपु, श्रवंट, सम, कुट, मंतूट,॥ अंच, मंट, पंह्यं, यप्तु, मैंट, शूट, ट्रा अंच, मंट, पंह्यं, यप्तु, मैंट, शूट, ट्रा अंच, मंट, प्रह्यं, यप्तु, मैंट, शूट, ट्रा

स्त्र मिट द्याप्त मा भ्रेत से दुस।

स्वा द्वा ठव मी व्या मा इसस।

स्वा द्वा ठव मी व्या मा इसस।

स्वा द्वा ठव मी व्या मा इसस।

112. Too great affection is often the cause of violent animosity; for the most part all the quarrels of men arise from a too great familiarity.

113. It may happen sometimes that a long debate becomes the cause of a greater friendship. We see often that commonly such as have disputed with (or against) one another, at last agree.

114. Though an avaricious man possesses wealth, an envious men his associate, an ill-minded man his learning, yet these can produce no pleasure.

स्था तं. यट्टे. तर. श्रिश तश. धर्मे॥ श्रिश तं. रट. टेट. शर्देश तश. टेमेट। टिसेंग, इच. ट्र. यहॅट. तश. धर्मे।

मिलें पा संबे संदे में सेयं द्यापा। इ.ट्यून एवं संदे यंगें र्याप ट्रेन बंसका। से सूर्य प्राप्त लंद संदे स्थापान ट्रेन बंसका।

मिटेट. ट्रेश. सपारापेट. हुब.सट. कु॥ शत्माताबंश. चैंट. मैंद.ब। बुर. थुंट. श्लेंच. घडुब. लाट. श्लूंट.। मिटाम. बुर. लूट. श्लेंच. शहुश।

115. Covetous men delight in wealth; the ambitious are pleased when they hear their own praise; a foolish man is glad, when he finds one like himself; the virtuous man rejoices when he hears the truth.

116. The qualifications of a bad man, the imperfect learning of a mighty speaker, the kindnesses of bad master, seldom

are useful to others.

117. If a man is opulent, his discourse is pleasing, an indigent, though he speaks the truth, is conferenced. A piece of wood if brought from the Malaya mountain, though it is only a common one, has a high price.

हैं थट हेशता पहुर यह ही। में भ्रा हेश या भ्रेंटा मदी महि। बे.डू. झ.च. चत्रचर्र. चक्षमा **८८च. क्रमाश. सैमाश. तश. चट्.चर. मैं॥** 119 क्री. मार. र्मा. या. मार्थि. होर. राक्षा . इसारा गुदारु यद यहमाराद। न्मा. लट. ट्रे.ल. मोर्से. सेर. धर। 150 ह्रेंचश चेंका भ्राक्षश सिंश है. तथ। कुंचश कथ दुव जा हिं कु दुर्चेश। र्मश्रद. चे.च. चर्सिचरातां जा हिं या देवें। अदा रदा खेना येव ॥

118. Much talking is the cause of danger, silence is the foundation of avoiding misfortune. The talkative parrot is shut up in a cage, other birds, that are mute, fly at random.

119. When a man endeavours to be useful to an enemy in every respect, without hypocrisy, and when the enemy also yields

him without artifice, it shows a great character.

120. What avails it, if an impotent man is angry? What need is there for a powerful to be angry? Therefore it is unreasonable to be angry for the performance of a thing,—it is but to mortify one's self.

ब्रुवानमः चम्नेमानः नेत्राः भटः पर्वे। श्चेष सेर मानेष अदः रेटर् श्चेटः। यापी देखा बद याव। युष्टे. य≡र. करे. एक्ट. यर. पर्येर ॥ 155 देवो. र्. विश्वश. तश. श्रृट.य.ल्.।• है. तूर. चंद. चालूचा. छूर. चर. ही। यरम्बर् सर्भेषः ८८:यः न्ना थ. यहेश. तर. लट. रट. मुंश. उरे॥ सुर्थ. हैंरे. कंब.चर्. हैंर. च. रट.। श्राप्तश्रः सर. ग्रीर.व. रीम.य.र्टरः। क्रवः र्राक्षः नमकायः योग्राक्षः सुरायदे।

121. With gifts you may gather about you the enemy also; if you give nothing, you are left by your own kindred also. When the cow's milk is deficient the good calf grows meagre, and becomes sorrowful.

मार्थक्ष. त्र. मार्थकः यहे. रट. पा. स्वा।

122. A master that always treats with kindness his own domestics, may easily find servants and slaves. The geese, without being called, gather together to the lakes where there grow many lotuses.

123. When a man employs his riches, when one is gentle after having become learned, when a great man protects the lower class of people, these three things make happy others, and are useful to one's self.

 अधिया. चीट. झे.सूर. सुचे. पा. कूंश।

 कूंच. चीट. कु.या. हेच. रा. लूश।

 स्थये. रा. क्ष्मश. पीट. कुचे.सू. कूंच।

 154 कुचे.सू. क्ष्मश. पा. हेच. चेस. व.।

124. By depending on the great, the mean also may rise high: see how the little plant (or shrub) by embracing a large tree has climbed up to the top.

125. Though a talented man has his defects, yet they that delight in learning, support him. Though the atmosphere be obscured (hurt) by rain, yet the inhabitants of the world are

made glad by it.

126. Rich men are numerous among the ignorant people;
valiant ones among the crowds of wild beasts; elegant sayings
valiant ones among the crowds of wild beasts; elegant sayings
proceed from the learned class; a Saint is a rare thing in this

र्यादः स्थः रयदः सं स्थः यः वर्षेत्। स्थान्यः यः नीमोशः यः स्थान्यःयः रेटः। रे स्थानः दः नीटः तः रे स्थः।

चि म. की. शुर. चश. की. मुटे।।

रेशर. त. देशश. गुंश. यथेश. तर. रंगीर।

रेशर. त. देशश. गुंश. यथेश. तर. रंगीर।

129 字山, 红, 遊山紅, 七野, 七, 五円, 1 七野, 七郎, 4억, 現刻, 七野石松, 红, 4억数 | 七野, 七野石松, 红, 穴, 山紅仁, 瀬山太子仁, | 七野, 红, 瀬山松, 七紅, 七十七松, 九二十

1.27. Every man is celebrated for that thing in which he excels. The learned as a learned person, the hero as a valiant man.

128 What is respected by the great, is contemped by the low people. The head ornament of the great Ishwara's devoured by Chandra the Giant.

129. Science existing only in books; Mantret not committed to memory; those things which a forgetful man has learned, in the time of necessity often deceive us, are decibed. श्रे. वश्रट. ये. लुश. वर्ड्स. बुश. हुश ॥ ट्या. ट्य. ट्यीट. श्र्याश. वश्च. चाहेश. तू । टे. लुश. वश्चेत.तर. श्र. वेश. चाट.।

130. Sweet scent to dogs and hogs, a light to the blind, meat to indigestion, instruction to foolish men, are not required.

131. A talented (or well qualified) man, and good gold, a brave soldier, and a fine horse, a skilful physician and a beautiful ornament everywhere find their price (or all esteemed).

132. If one has a good intellect and diligent application, what is it that cannot be done by them? The Pandavas, they have I heard, have overcome the twelve troops of the dangerous enemy.

- मूंचाका की. क्षष्ट्रची. वे. श्रु. चर्झी.चर्ड्रा। मीच. मी. क्षष्ट्रचा. वे. ह्यूका. च. ह्यूं। चट्र.चर्ड्र. क्षष्ट्रचा. वे. ह्यूका. च. ह्यूं।
- स्टायबुद्यमुः क्षेत्रायदेगास्त्रे। ६ २वरः रेजीयः यबुद्धरे हुःचरः अग्नीरः। यदेःदटः श्रीमः यश्चितः श्वभन्नः वटः ग्रीटः। श्वारेः यदेःचरः चोट्रह्मःसः श्वी। १३३ बुरः चुन्नः सः सोर्ट्यः श्वीःभरः भ्रदे।

133. Though hills, rivers, elephants, horses, trees, guns, rays of light, storms, men and women, be all of the same kind (in their respective orders or classes), yet there is a difference of our being great (or high) and the other small (or mean).

134. The chief wealth consists in charity, and the greatest happiness in the tranquillity of mind. Hearing (or experience) is the most beautiful ornament; the best companion is he that

desires not.

135. There is none that had never been afflicted with a disease for wealth—who enjoys always happiness. Pleasure and sorrow are always changing like summer and winter.

136 इन नर्भना एकुवा केन ६८1 न्यात. बीच. कंब. राष्ट्र. कुंबा. यहूच देट.। चिता हो हुई। बहुन ही हुँद्रिया मिश्रिक्ष हो. श्रृंत श्रृषे. बेर्चश्र राज्येव ॥ क्षा क्षिम्बरा पुरमा हुराया १८। शट रट रेप्टर हट हूंचरा हर हूर। बरकर थर पर्रे पर्रे पर पर पर ना 문학· 원·구. 교환비· 다수 회 | 138 हर होर मेंश वजर सहेंग वर्रेर रूप निवर ज. श्रूट. कुट. ट. मील. कु। वस्तु वर्डेश शे मेश हेर्पय वर्डेर। नशिक्ष हा उर्जे चटु. चबर. चर.का।

VII.—THE UNBECOMING (OR INDECENT) MANNER—

136. If a slave behaves with great pride, if the actions of an ascetic are fruitless, if a prince does not act according to moral law, all the three have taken an irregular course.

137. To act indiscreetly, to have raneour against many, to quarrel (dispute) with the powerful, to be passionate for the female sex, to cleave to what is bad: these five things are the

causes of a quick destruction.

138: When one is poor, and yet would have fine garments.

when one, living on the charity of others, behaves haughtily.

when he that is ignorant of literary works, wishes to dispute.

These three are a laughing stock to men.

- ड्रॉमों क्यांश. चांबंद. मीश. चो. ज. च॥ श्रुट. चो. जिश. ग्री. उची. श्रुव. दाश। रट. ची. उपंचर. चीश. चांब्र्ट. दा श्रट.।
- हे. पा. की. चहु, मूं. स्रेचश. सुरी। है. पा. सुँच. चर्ड. चुरे. चारी। है. पा. सुँच. चर्ड. चुरे. चारी।
- स्ट्रिंग संसूर्य, ये. क्ष. चांकूरं, रेश। सीया चोरेचा चकाकी चिटाचालटा। चांबर जा चांकूर, ता चुरे. ता लूरे। संस्था संसूर्य, ये. क्ष. तथलटा।

140. When a Master (Ruler) does evil to himself, who can defend him against it? When an object is offuscited by the light itself, there is no means of seeing it.

141. Some malicious men, though they derive no benefit thereof, like to do evil to others. Though a venomens serpent feeds on air, yet, when he sees others, would he not kill them.

^{139.} Great men (Sovereigns) suffer more injury from their own people than from their own enemy. By what other animals is the corpse of a lion devoured, except by worms in his own body?

142 पर्रेर या घरे या क्षेत्रा शेवस गुप्त। . इप्. ब्रुर.स. मैंचा यज्ञा ची। कर वश्चर वरे दे क्रुम य री र्श्वेत य वर्षवर क्षेत्र य धेव॥ श. क्षंत्रक कु. हट. य. ज. हैंथे। म्था. 'सर. चीर.थ. टह्मशासर. छ। मेश. तर. पहुंचाश 'वृष्ट. प्रू. रूप. जा वर्देर य हुन वेंदे वेंना स भना मारः विमा स्राम्यायः स्पूरः चविष्रुः। दे प्रका प्रवा नव का क्रीय वा श्रे रे मर्देश मुंश यर्ययात्म। लट. वे. पन्न. ग्रीश. शवेर. च. लुवे॥

142. Though our lust fancies to be happiness, yet practice of it is the cause of sorrow. He that places happiness in wine-drinking, imagines that it is a mad man only that is happy.

143. Men wish to live long, and, when grown old, they are afraid of old age. To be afraid of old age, and to wish to live

long, is the wrong principle (theory) of a foolish man.

144. When there is a wise instructor, and one will not learn from him, to improve in good qualities, such man is either occupied by the devil, or suffers the ill consequences of his former works (actions).

145 HE. W. YEN. \$ L. M. 46421 हुँदः दक्षं श्रुवःसरः होः मोर्टेरः व। क्षे: दे: बर्र: गुरुष: यहव: य: दस्र। लट. व. ल. दैवाश. शहूव. श्रेंश. लुवे॥ 146 क्रूश. जियाश. जुझा मिट. थ्रा. झैंटा. बी रे. ला. क्रूम. ग्रीम. हे. ब्रेग. हा जू. हुंची. सैव.शिश. क्रूचीश. व. लट.। माञ्च, मांचव, रसाद, या मा ला ही।। प्रमा गुना सर्भः यदः श्रममा द्यः पा लूटका हुँदे. लूदे. कीट. हुँदे. स. देश। वे. रूच. कुंचांश. ग्रेट. भ्रेंट. सूर. ग्रें। दर्मात्सः चरः <u>चः चः मः लः वैस्रा</u>।

145. He that is possessed of wealth, and does not enjoy it himself, neither bestows it charitably on others, either has fever, or is an accomplished miser.

146. Who knows what virtue is and does not practise it, to what use is his religion? Though there be a fine crop, the

wild beasts, do they rejoice in it?

147. He that is afflicted with the ill consequences of his moral actions, though he has riches, cannot enjoy them. Though the crow be hungry, yet, since there is a snare laid, how can he fully be satisfied?

सुना के नक्षेत सं के रे. था। इ. स. मेश्रूर, नक्षेत्र संस्था के है। इ. स. मेश्रूर, नक्षेत्र संस्था के है। स. स. स. स्थून संस्था

पहना हुन पट्टन नुबर्ट राह्ना। इ.जेर. नुबर्द्य अंध्या जुन्छ। धामकाता नुबर्ट शटन लटा। धामकाता नुबर्ट श्रह्म सुब्ह झैं.च.जा।

कृते. तु. मुंदे. तूरासम. हु॥ भ.स. २३, भुटे.वे. शहुश. ता. भूवे। . भूवे. २३, भुटे.वे. शहुश. ता. भूवे। .

148. If you think a man to be rich that neither can enjoy, nor bestow charitably his substance on others, it is very easy for you to make a rich man, by fancying that a whole mountain consists of pure gold.

149. Though there be many learned men, who know and tell what not a virtuous action is, there are very few in this world

who would practise it, after having it thus understood.

150. Though a man has his birth, form, juvenile age, yet, without good qualities, he is not handsome; though peacock's feathers be beautiful, yet will they be convenient for the ornament of a great man?

रे.लु. चश्चत. संचश्च. शे. लुश. चुश। ची. शुरे. त.वु. चीट. धुंश. त। ची. शुरे. त.वु. चीट. धुंश. त। ची. शुरे. चंदेचोश. वेश. धुं. च. हु।

कू. चर्. स.च. पक्ष. जेश. पर्चेटः॥ बूट. चर्. स.च. मोश. कप्ताश. श्री। द्वाश. क्र-रा.च. चे. टच. श्री। रा.च. चेशर. चेशरा. चर. पिट. टचे.शुश्राश. श्री।

151. By no endeavour can it be done that a naturally bad man be turned into an honest man. How long soever you boil water, it is impossible to make it burn like fire.

152. If there is reason for it, it is somewhat proper to be angry, and there is also a cure for it; but who knows the mode of

appeasing one when grown angry without a cause?

153. When one's virtues fail, then arises ill-will; when the right family descent is extinct, then will be born a bastard (then comes a base-born): when wealth has been expended there exist desires; when life is spent the symptoms of death appear.

श. लू. थरेशतंश. ची. ल. वेटा। थ्. धूची २८. धूरे. थ. चसंश्रश. था धम्मे. हुंब. चुंश. प्रतिवृत्त. थ. वेश. था

रेयट. तैंचा, हुंस. तपु. टेंस. बेचांश. पहूर्गा। शे. हुंचांश. गुंट. तपु. हुंस. तपु. शकु्चा। थ्र. कुंस. जूचा. तपु. जश. ज. पच्चें। यु. कुंस. जूचा. तपु. जश. जिंट तर्गा।

सीट. मुंश, श्रीट, चूं, चट्रं, चट्र. चैं॥ सीट. मूंज, साम. कुट्र. सैंचो चूं, जा। कुट्र. कुं टट. मूं. मोजुद्दें था नुवा। 129 थे. वट. पूट्श, श्रीट्र. घशमधा मौनांशाव।

154. If one has not committed any wicked action, Indrahimself also cannot lay on him any blame. How can a waterspring be depressed, by laying (or heaping) earth on it, as long as it does not become dry by itself?

155. If conducted in a handsome manner, great minds follow a wrong way. The mad principal of the Tirthikas adopts

the practices of Ishoers, the teacher.

156. When a man becomes too famous for his riches, he is destroyed by his wealth. It is commonly rich men that are sessuited, beggars pass through without any molestation.

124 स. स्ट. शर्वे श्रम, क. चीमारा थी क्रिय यद्भेर हं। मुख् ग्रेन्यालवा मिलिया रे. यश्चर राज्य हो. हो। अर्वे. क्ष्म. क्ष्म. था पर्वेट.य. शर.॥ 128 पर्वेट. रेट. चुंश. रय. हेंचश. फंश्मेश। पश्रद. वधावा कव. व. गुमावाकी उर्गेर। नर्शितः बस्रसः होतः वः तेः तमा गुना नर्मा १६. नक्ष्मा सप्. मैं.श. प्रीरा। 128 NEW AND 128 3-1-19-10-1 रट. मीः वर्शर. वश्रमः वर्मामः हे छ। हुर. रेश. चर्चर. वसस. स्वे.क्र्मश्रत। क्षे में महार्थे बद्द नोंदे।

157. It is but to propose his own destruction, when a man becomes too renowned for his strength and skill. In battle mostly are slain such as have been strong and skilful

158. Wealth, wit, strength, and the like, all will associate with you, if you have moral merits (if you are virtuous), but if

you have none, they become the cause of your ruin.

169. A wise man, whateverhe does, must act with due consideration of his moral merits. At the time of contest, among a hundred persons, it is rare to find one of accomplished moral merits.

- रे. ज. रूबोश. चर्चेर. चुंबरे. चेंबरे. रा. बोट. ज. बुंट. टेट. कंब. चींट. ता . ब्रैंबोश. बोड़वो. कुबंश. पहुचोता. कंदा 190 हिटारबे. की. लुश. चिट्शताबी
- हा. ट्र. क्य. य. ट्रंस. क्य. ट्रंस्था। वस्था क्ट. स्वय. श्रंस. क्र्यांस. पहेंस्था। वस्था क्ट. स्वय. थ. ट्रंस. क्र्यांस. पहेंस्था।
- 162 देश. वे. श्राप्तश. तथ. तथ्ये. व्याक्षा. तथ. वश्ची. श्र. श्रेम. माट. वे. सेव. क्रुचीश. सी यश्चे. वश्चश. मि. वे. सेव.क्रुचीश. सी टे. वे. श्राप्तश. तथ. तथ्ये. वश्चश. तथनी।

160. When a bad tank is full of water, certainly it will break out on any side. They that grow rich, seldom leave a posterity.

161. Seldom is found a rich man, that has children also; but if he has both, he is often destroyed by an enemy. When one is happy in every respect, it happens frequently that such a man is carried off by an early death.

162. Therefore a wise man must acquire moral merits; it is only virtue that is the cause of every happiness (or prosperity); when a man is prosperous in every respect, it is the sign of his having acquired moral merits.

तर्रक्ता श्रिकाणीट ट्रेसिका या श्री। जब कुना हैंबारे. श्रैंबा या ट्रां श्रेंबा बे रटा धेरा पश्चिमा या जाबी 163 हैंबा मुका या हुना पश्चित्र बुका।

165 ब्रेंस.च. ट्रेंस. वंश. पंजीय.श्र. प्री. चंश्यांचही। प्र. ट्रेंस. ब्रेंस. यं. हेंस. पंजीय.श्र. पंजीय.। प्र. ट्रेंस. ब्रेंस. यं. पंजीय.श्र. पंजीय.। श्र. ट्रेंस.च. ट्रेंस. वंश. पंजीय.श्र. पंजीय.।

163. He that thinks thus: I will deceive him, he deceives himself. If one has told one falsehood, afterwards, though he speak the truth, he will be doubted.

164. He that does not examine what good and evil is, and, in his angry fit, injures his neighbour, he shall grieve, like the swallow bird, for his being deprived of his associate.

165. Both here and in the next world, if you are deficient in earnest application, you cannot be prosperous. Though the land be good, you cannot have a (plenteous) crop, without cultivating it diligently.

मुक्त व. य. बट. बट. जैट.। क्षे रे. मुंश गुंश वर्षेततर है। बीक घर बीर ब के हुर्श्रूष। श मीय द लट शहुश पर में। श्रेमस स्थे ध्रुश या झ क्रुमशय। वश्वरा वर. श्रमी. य. श्रीशागीटारेगोर । रट. केट. लूब. २व. इब. चेंब. चेंब. वें। वश्रक्ष. दर. भनी य. ट्र. ज. है। नुब रे. संबा तर. सीर. प्रू. लट.। बुंश या शट रें. यश्यी यर वि क्रे. धर. हुश. धश. तथ. त. ही हुँच. रा लुश ग्रेट. में ज दर्ग।

VIII.—THE ACTIONS (OR DOINGS) OF MEN (57)

166. An intelligent (pundit) man must always do a small thing also with due consideration, should be succeed in his offices) what is there more desirable: but should be fall, it is yet handsome to have acted prudently.

167. The minds (sentiments) of men are very different—whoseever he be, it is difficult for him, to please all (to satisfy the wishes of all)—he is near to do so, who makes himself so complished in all good qualities.

168. Increased your wisdom (experience) in your very dedited age also. In the next life it will be useful to you what will then exall your alms !

160 ल्य. देव. पीव. ह्वांशाश्चे र यहेव। लाय देश्या वर्गेचेश रा पर् विभाग हैं। लुश चार या थें। स्रा क हिंदा या विमर या यह। ल्य. देव. कट. चर्चे चर्चे चर्च. चर्च. स्रो श. वृत्ता. मुश्च. वृ. प्रिंदरवर. वैशा . क्ष्म. सुर. चोट.चंट्र. येथ. रा. री। भम्. ज. प्रिंट.टे. शे. लुश. वैश। 171 की मार क्षेत्र के दक्ष या दर। र्षत्र पर्यः विराध्यास्य स्वरं वा रे थे इ य वश्चर वेश य। सैंब. श्रेश. क्यांश. तप्. चांब. कुंब. लुब।

169. Either keep to him that is accomplished in science, or converse with ordinary men. You may carry easily with you a bottle, when it is either full or entirely empty.

170. Who can bear a man who is but little conversed with science! Who can carry a water-pot on his head, when it is

but half filled!

171. He that understands well the difference between an exactlent and a low mast, knows how to do his business (or how to soi). This is the great foundation of prosperity.

मुं. गुंश. चक्ष. तश. जुन्नश. शुरूरश्रेष। मी स् मीश रायट अकूमारी प्रीर ह्मिन विश्वः दमा मीश वेर्डिय। वस्रवंशः वः ८र्रेर्-यः वेशःयरः दगुरः॥ 113 अधा हुंचुश कृट. यपु. हीं.चू.लट.। केंबर देर मालबाय यहेवर वर समाया कि. जु. बुचार्सा रा. असरा. कृट. लट.। अर्के: रूट: पर्देश र मा या प्रमुख।। 174 XE. 35. \$ 1 1 1 1 5. 61. ME. 1 ह्यें केंब. चिंबर ज. जुर्माश्रासर, पट्टी व्यम् यसः नुमुद्धः सः मुर्सेनः न। अपूर्वे क. जुर् तर. श. चुर. देश।

172. With a firm resolution for perfection, a low man also may yet become a principal, if a parrot is well instructed by those who understand teaching, he will know one's worth.

173. Men of little abilities also, if they depend on the great, may succeed (or prosper). A drop of water is a small thing, but, when united with a lake, when will it dry away?

174. Though a man is not intelligent by himself, yet he consults prudently another wise man. The hand does not kill an enemy, but if it takes a weapon, may it not do so?

- हैं स्याप्तिश्च वा हो स्याप्ता विकास विकास विकास वा हो स्थाप्ता विकास वि विकास विकास विकास विकास विकास विकास विकास विकास विकास विकास विका
- ट्रे. पात्रा. वापा. व. जिंट. चर. पंचीर ॥ चंट. ह्या. चंट. क्रि.पात्र. चंट. मुशा श्र. ह्या. चार्ख्य. पा. प्रूस. शुश्रश्च. श्रिट.। इस. चंचा. यश्चर. पार्ट. चंद्र. चंट.।
- 경치, 전혀 소리 보는 소리 전기
 경치, 전, 토리치, 역치, 비로, 소리치, 전기
 보기, 전기, 전기, 역치치, 전기기

175. Of a dangerous enemy also, if you know the means, you may make a confederate. Large quantity of poison hurts the body, but if you know how to make the mixture, it turns into medicine.

176. Aught of the food and money which is offered to you for your learning; listen to others and leave off pride. You may take the fruit from the top of a tree, but, if you reach farther, you fall down.

177. As long as you have not sufficient strength, bear (have patience with) your enemy; when you are streng enough, do as it seems best to you. Thus it is said in other shiftstras.

भयोतारी, वचा, च. कु.कुं. पर्ट्यका। कुंठ, धुंश, चार, शु. हुट, था वज, कुर, चाशजचर, चक्षेयतश, अस्था

178. Treat with due respect, and reward always liberally those round about you. It is said, that with scorifics and afferings we will have all from the gods down to the spirits (or ghosts)

179. In a becoming manner a prince may tax his subjects without appressing them. A Sal-tree becomes dry, if too much

fragrent juice issues from it.

180. Be studious to conceal the manner of your arithms.

Commonly, it is weakness to show it plainly. Had the eye not been found devising they would not have fied a rope on his limit.

रे.श. स्वार्टे. जु. जर्. ट्येट्रिंग। यंच. व. चंकुर.टे. रट. हेर्ट्जा रे.चे. जू. ज. लट. श्र. धु.चे. श्रा. च्य. श. कुंच. लट. श्र्याचे श्री. तंच. श. कुंच. लट. श्रूप.चुंट्गा अपन्त. त. शे. कुंच. लूट. श्रूप.चुंट्गा अपन्त. त. शे. कुंच. लूट. श्रूप.चुंट्गा श्री. तंच. श्रूप. चुंश. ह. कुंचा।

स्टल्स्ट वहार, वशका वहारायर, वर्चेर ॥ इ.लूब. वेचीलट शुभश शुचाकुट। स्ट. कुरे. लूब. वेच. लंबतर सीचाकुट।

182. We should never use such expressions as might hurture, not even against an enemy; they immediately will return

on us, like an echo from a rock.

168. If you wish to injure an enemy, make you self perfect in all good qualities. By doing so, the enemy himself will be sportfied, and you yourself also shall improve in virtue.

^{181.} To what use are such food and goods as are contemned by others? What wise man would have such dirty things as are eaten by dogs and swine?

 उसा. पा. क्षांता. ट्र. शर्बेक्टा. मुक्री।

 चे. कुमी. चे. कुमी. मुका. एकु. लाट.।

 चे. कुमी. चे. कुमा. मुका. एकु. लाट.।

 उसा. चे. कुमा. कुट. लाट. श्र. चे.

 प्रा. कुमा. कुट. लाट. श्र. चे.

 प्रा. मु. प्रश. मू. कुश. म्. कुर. कुर. कुश. एट्रेश।

 इस. कुश. मू. कुश. म्. कुश. म. जुश. चुश. चुश.

 उस. कुश. मू. कुश. म. चे. कुश. चे. कुश. कुर.।

비했고, 다당, 혹, 역, 취임하였다. 영소 II 양다, 비학, 동, 멋단, 테다, 양악, 비송하기 에너학, 다하, 숙비, 친, 건취업학, 강, 취 I 원, 각, 왕, 왕다, 네다, 경구, 교다.

184. The foolish man is tender-hearted to an enemy: this must be subdued in a rough manner. They that wish well to their own body, take out the disease of it, by bleeding and caustic operations.

185. Though our own party is angry with us, we should not desert it. Though an enemy treats us with kindness, we should not embrace his cause. Though a crow hurts another

crow, yet they do not agree with the owl.

186. A wise man, whatever he does, whether great and small things, must do them with due consideration. When the lion kills both the hare and the elephant, he has no time for consideration.

भ्र. य. घर. हूर. चीर. ज. ब्रेंश।

हे. थर्. य. क्र. ग्र. चीर. ज. ब्रेंश।

यहेत. थ. क्र्र. ग्र. व्या. व्या. व्या. व्या.

यहेत. थ. क्र्र. ग्र. व्या. व्या. व्या. व्या.

वे. क्ष्रश. चाह्रर. रे. क्षेट. यर. प्रचीरा।

यहेत. यु. हुश. ज. चिषश. य जा.

यहेत. यु. हुश. व्या. व्या. व्या. व्या.

चीव. टे. इ. व. धिव. त्. प्रिंता।
वेश. श्रीपष्ट, पंहर. क्यूंच. श्रहंश. गीट.।
इ. रट. पंजूंचाश. त. शे. खुना. वेश।
चीव. श्र. चीट. शहर. च. श्र. चहुंब. त।

187. If we keep to such as are more excellent than we, we profit thereby. Those birds that abide on the side of Sumeru (Kirab) seem to shine like gold.

188. If you depend on an envious great man, you never shall obtain renown. See how the moon does decline after

having approached to the sun.

189. Who can associate with such a man as keeps no friendship? Though a rainbow is beautiful, it is a foolish man's error if he takes it for a real ornament.

चर्चा, ज. चश्चान, हु. लूरे, चश्चा।
चरित्र, सीमा, कट. घरे, चांद्रश, चर्च, छू।
स्थित का भीत, हैं, है, थू, थे।
उर्चा, हुरे, चांट, ज. शु, रेचंड, दा

रे. क्ष. क्षेत्र. मीक्ष. क्षट्टरे. चर. उर्जेट ॥ माध्ये. मीक्ष. यटेचो. ज. चोट. टेचोट. च। रं. क्षेट. चोल्य. ज क्षेट. चेश. थ। यदेचो. क्षेट्र. चोट. ढुचो. चोट. टेचोट. च।

श्र थ. लूर. य. मुंब. ये. प्र.। भाष्ट्रा य. र्या. थ. पर्टे. य. र्टा.। भाष्ट्रा य. र्या. थ. पर्टे. य. र्टा.। श्र थ. लूरे. य. प्र.।

190. What we like not for ourselves, we never should do to others. When we are injured by others, we should reflect on, what think we then in ourselves?

191. If we do to others what is agreeable to us others also,

in the same manner, will honour us with a pleasing return.

192. He is always happy, who has the opportunity of depending on the excellent, of asking (consulting) the learned, and of conversing with good-natured men.

धा. जा. चिंचरे. चींशा. चर्चीरा. चा. हे। रे. कंर. च्ये. च. धा. झें. चट्टा झें. च. अशश. क्टे. जेचिंगा चर. चशश। 183 श्रेथश. क्टि. इंश्वश. ग्रीश. रहा. हेरे. ग्री।

※ 보고 소리 소리 보고, 성보 2. 보다니!!
 보다. 첫번, 전보니, 따 수, 됐는데하고 이
 ※ 보고, 성보, 2. 보네다!

193. Weak-minded men fancy (think) that every thing that they speak is erroneous. The man who thinks thus, if he do not speak, is very much to be suspected by others.

194. At its proper place and time, after having well considered, speak some time. Though you utter only (or all) elegant sayings, yet if too much, like overplus merchandises, they

have no price.

195. It is very difficult (or seldom) in learned men also, to take for a defect the imperfection that they have. Take care, whoever (atudiously) confesses of himself to have such defects, he is a faulty man.

श्र. श्र. पर्जी. य. श्रीश. श्र. रेस्सी।

रेट. पर्जीश. मेट. थे. ट्रंथ. मीय. थे।

रेट. पर्जीश. मेट. थे. ट्रंथ. मीय. थे।

रेट. पर्जीश. मेट. संश्रीश. श्र. थे. संट. थे।

 अ. र्ट. संर. थ. थ. थ. मंग्रेंट. रेथा।

 चूंथ. रे. क्. चंट्र. क. क्रेंट. मैटा।

 अहंच. च. चुंट. मैटा चंट्र. था. चं

 ग्रेंट. च. चुंट. मैटा चं

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했네. 리, 古字 구, 월급화. 다. 호텔 II 네에다. 白当다. 스피, 너, 해디와, 했다. 디회 I 스테, 크, 너, 저다. 어스, 디우리, 오다. I 188 네에다. 디르다. 도, 역, 턴너, 댓슨, 네 I

196. Without wealth, and without a train of servants, if there is for companion an intelligent friend, a beast also may find his concern, how much more a man?

197. With an enemy, who is from long time voracious against us, we should not coalesce, though he be desirous of our friendship. If fire meets (or comes in collision) with hot water

will it not be extinguished by this?

198. We may rely upon an enemy too, when he is a good-natured, righteous and honest man. I have heard, that one by resorting for protection to a good-tempered enemy, has been defended by him until his life's end.

अंतुर्, स. इंब. कुंब. कुं. स. लुक्षां भु. चाट. ज़ॅंश. ज. भु. रेचांत. यो से. य. क्ष्मश. ब्ट. ज़ॅंश. ग़ुंश. ये। 130, इंट. चृंश. जुंचांत. यंत्र. येश. व. लाटो

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 मालार, श. मुश्रका रा. उर्दूर, रथा हु॥ भूमा, क्य. यद्माश. दक्ष. उर्मू. य. ण। ये. य. अथश. रा. मा. ल. श्रेरे। भूमाश. रार. यदेमाश. दश. युरे. रा. ण।

199. Though you be well acquainted with the subject (or matter) do every thing with due consideration; he that neglects it, shall dearly pay for his indiscretion.

200. If you resort for protection to an enemy, show him every respect and reverence. The raven, by depending on the rat, was saved, according to the Puranas.

201. How is it possible that you should fail in your affairs, when you act with discretion? If a clear-signted man walks discreetly, will be not avoid the precipice?

2 ...

 ट्या. मीश. गीथ. थट. सरीथ. सर. मीशा.

 लर्जू. यट. पर्टूर. मीय. थ. लट.।

 लर्जू. यट. पर्टूर. मीय. य. थ्र. शुर. गीशा.

 लर्जू. यट. पर्टूर. सथ. पर्टूचा. थ्रेथ. था.

202. The more you desire to be exalted, the more you endeavour to be useful to others. They that wish to decorate their face, would they not first make clean the looking-glass?

203. The more you endeavour to conquer an enemy, the more you exert all your good qualities. See how they are confounded (or afraid) when they see their enemy make ready his weapons.

204. It is impossible in this world, that you should obtain your wish by cursing (or abusing). Though you be selfish in your mind; be affable to all, in speaking.

चाला. श्रीय. वीय. वाय. था. चाशीटश. श्रु.॥ व्यवश. जा. श्राप्तश. वाये. श्रीये. वा. जा वहश्च. श्रीय. हु. जोय. वीश. चीटा. श्रीयः। इ.स. वीश. ची. हुन्. चीवा. थे।

 506
 影, 支, 夏, 城, 城, 水山, 江, 白彩山川

 数之, 夏之, 多之, 水, 沙水, 江, 右山」

 数之, 夏之, 多之, 水山, 新之, 村, 村山

मिट. राष्ट्र, मिट. मीच. श्री. माश्चमा. श्रुचा। स्वीता. मीच. मीट. राष्ट्र, श्री. माश्चमा श्रुचा। मीख्मा. मीट. राष्ट्र, मीट. राष्ट्र, श्री. माश्चमा।

मीट. राष्ट्र, मीट. मीट. मी. माश्चमा स्रुचा।

205. If we have our concern and that of others, it matters not whether we have obtained it by soft or harsh means. The Muni has not declared it to be craftiness to employ wise means in our doings.

1 206. When a prudent man hangs down his head, the fault falls on him that abuses. When a light is kept downwards with its mouth, (or lighted candle or torch), it burns the hand of the light-keeper.

207. Place every thing to its proper place. A head-ornament is not tied on the legs; bracelets (or rings) for the legs will not answer as a head-ornament.

भेट. सेंचा. झे. कूचांश. टं. चच्चंट. उटींट.॥ जश. कु. उत्तर. ता. चींट. इट. चश्रश। उत्तर. किंट. चचेंट. च. श्र. चें हो। उत्तर. किंट. चचेंट. च. श्र. चें हो। उत्तर. किंट. चचेंचा. कु. वंश. चूंचांश. श्र. ट्वंश। उत्तर. ता. टंचा. चुंश. च्यंचांश. चचंट. चहुंश।

य. क्टुं. स्ट्रं, स. मूं. य. लूर्गा लय. जय. यसेट. ड्रंस. छ. जयंश. टें। ड्रंस. य. चल्यं. ज. चेंश. सेट. य। 510 ड्रंस. शस्त्र. शरश. सेश. यलेगंश. यल्यं. टें।

202 When you are about to perform any great thing, endeavour to have a good associate. If you will burn up a

forest, you want of course the aid of a wind.

209. Be not grieved, if you are indigent, neither be elated with joy, if you are in affluence: think on the consequences of your movel works. All sorts of prosperity and distress are but temporal (or of short duration).

IX.—Religion on good Morals (5%)

210. If a man pays respect to another teacher, though Buddha, the patron of men, is to be found here, he sinks a salt-well on the bank of a river whose water possesses eight good qualities.

511 25%. E. AL. L. AL. W. M. स व नगद य है थर बेर यम् क्ष. इसी चुरे. बैटश. रा. कर। न्म हुरा रेयत. य. घुर. तर. वर्यया। 515 चीट. धुनी. वेट. टेश. कुनी. चेश्. रा। रे. ल. जूटश. हुँदें ३८. श्र. चेश कुर्मी चेश भूरे तर पश्चम य जा मेंचे. यर्जिल. कर. चंबुर. मैंब. रे. उत्ता 213 दक्ष दर्विश कें द सेद राफी बुर्ट. वृ. ब्रुव. तर. बेव. तथ. चेश्वेटश। यश्चीश. रार्ट. बुटं. बु. झैंट. झु. केंट्र

211. There is no difficulty to perform whatever thing, if we are accustomed to. As we have learned the mechanical arts, we may exercise also virtue (true religion) without difficulty.

क्या (वेमा मालक मीका हिंद, यर प्रमीदा।

212. The wealth of a man, that is contented with little, is inexhaustible. He that seeks always for, and is never satisfied, will have a continual rain of sorrow.

213. Give of the goods that you have received from others, when they have need of them, as Thub-pa (Shákya) has commanded us to do. In the same manner as honey (of the bees), all hoarded treasure will once be enjoyed by others.

यहमा हेन पर्देश में जुन यहरं यह। र्ट्स र्येट्ट र्येट यदे देश य सेना श्रॅट. पर दीव. पर पंतर. शुर. तर। 용다. Mr. 업립. 컴퓨. 최고. 전고. 너고. 너립소!

देवांशः वर्गुदः मुदः गुरः देवांशः यशः न। ह्यें करः करः वर् वर्ह्नेरः यः वर्ह्नेन। भ्राप्तसः तः इषाधः वर्षीटः भुष्टः हुनः हीर। चिश्चमाः चर्त्वयः चावयः तः श्चैयःयः ग्रे7॥

इ. केर. त. शश. वर. वेशश. त रे. केर. ये. क्श. य. धर. धूरी त. शरा. ची. क्र. चम्रीटश. चम्रीटश. थ्रा। त. भ. चेश. वेश. वे. क्श. वर्षेश॥

214. In this world, it is uncertain, if you lend money, whether you shall have the principal or not, but if you bestow it in alms, though it be small, it will increase hundred-fold.

215. From fearing that his family will be impoverished) (thereby) a narrow-minded man keeps anxiously all the little th he gets. A wise man, to obtain a high rank, bestows his a' 3, as bribes, on others.

216. As children are loved by their parents, they are not respected in the same manner by their children. After the parents have long cherished their children, when they have grown

old, they are despised by them.

हुंस. या. चढ़िश. टी. मिंबर. था. होटा। हुंसा. टेट. हुंस. देश. बुंट. सुंट. पडेंट. मेटा। हुंस. चढ़ेस्स. चुंट. सुंट. पडेंट. मेटा।

पटेची. जा. चाबूटे. ता. श्रवंट. जंबा. जंटेशी हिंटे. जी. हिं. या. हिं. वे. कुशंबा. किंटे. जी. हिं. या. हिं. वे. कुशंबा. किंटे. ता. तंहरी. वंटेंंग

रची. पोथ. चांकुची. कर. चक्रसे. रा. जूथी। रट. ची. च्रिं. च. चोंकुची. चकुक्त. राक्षी चाक्षरे. रा. ट्रे. गीथ. चांका. पहूरा. राक्षी चाक्षरे. रा. ट्रे. गीथ. चर्णची. उर्दूरे. थी

217. They that have become the slaves of the world, run r riches, neglecting their own souls. Contented men, though y obtain wealth, give it, as an excellent man does to others.

218. If you fight an enemy, since he does harm to you, due your own passions: it is on account of your passions t, from the beginning, you are wandering in the orb of transpation; and then you shall be perfectly free from all harm.

219. If you will destroy all your enemies, you never shall be at an end with killing them. But if you have subdued only your own passion, you have at once destroyed all your enemies.

भवे. कुर, यम जिस्सा हिंदे. रा. पा सिंहा के रूट, था क्षेत्री रार. चार्डरी दश य है वर है य था हिं वर वरि कुं मा था सर्गा 221 ब्रॅट. ग्र. मंडुबो क भ्रेश रा ली इ. ध्यक्ष. चिंट. मुक्ष. हुम्बाक्ष. पश्चर. उद्वर। रे. चर्चित क्षेत्र. कुची श्लेश रा. ह्यी श्चे यू पथा ग्रीश शू शूर पर्यंग। रदः पर्देरः पयरः प्रशः प्रश्चेतः पर्देरः व। रे. लक्ष रट. ग्रॅंग मलन रेन पश्चिम। रदः रूबः वयवः वया मुद्धः ग्रेनः य। रे भेश रा रेंब वसुव से श्री।

220. If you are angry with a powerful mischievous man, you hurt the more your own self. What reason have you to be angry with a virtuous and very sedate man?

221. Herbs, that grow on the same stubble, are dispersed by the wind into the ten corners (of the world); thus men, that are born together, are separated by the effects of their moral works.

222. If you will earnestly obtain your own concern, first seek that of others. He that seeks only his own concern principally, it is impossible that he should succeed in obtaining his own purpose,

 बीय, यू. पंचर. थंश. श्रॅच. र्जूश. शू.।

 विश. यू. पंचर. थंश. यूच. थंर. चोश. चीश.

 विश. यू. शूच. यू. यूच. यूच. यूच. चीश.

 वैश. यू. शूच. यू. यूच. यूच. यूचे. चीश.

 वैश. यू. शूच. यू. यूच. यूचे. यूचे. चीश.

 विश. यू. शूच. यू. यूचे. यूचे. यूचे. यूचे. चीश.

 विश. यू. शूच. यू. यूचे. यूचे. यूचे. यूचे. यूचे.

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9. पर्टर. २०१४. लाट. ८५८. दश. ५र्डेच। क्री.भ. धिथे. सूर. ही. ट्रेचश. त। 9. पर्टर. धिथे. सूर. शहूट. ५श. थे। 552 ही. य. हा. भ. भ. पश्चितश. तथ।

223. A foolish man will not learn, and takes every thing for a miracle; a wise man after having studied, admires every thing. Therefore a wise man, though grown old, acquires knowledge for his future state.

224. The fool seeks not to acquire science, since he says, he has no mind of understanding; but if he would well consider, he should endeavour for this reason to learn to improve his

understanding.

225. One that has not learned in his former birth, is ignorant in the present life. He that is afraid to be born again ignorant in the next world, though it be difficult, must study assiduously in this life.

सुभा पा हुंशा हा श रेम्सा बंस। . 實可在實力。 ब्रह्मः या भेट्रः यदे स्मूमः या दे। त्यर. मिट. रेट. ठ्यूं हे. मैंद स्वश. लूरा। 227 मुं तत्रश न्यक्षु यं सेर य दरी वभन्नः केट. भष्टिब. राष्ट्रः विट. कूबान्त्रवे। भ. यधियश. त. ज. गी.र. अष्टिंत. री। दर्ने. व. मैं. दर्मश. म. प. चर्ने। 228 विंश या सेन् यते. झेंस या ने। र. धुना. मीत. गीट. श्रीर. टी. पहूर्याश। मेशुर. रेटिज. जुमेश. तर. चबे. थे. लट.।

226. Meditate, there is no need to learn by hearing, thus says the narrow-minded fool. Contemplation without previously hearing (experimental learning) though it be diligently pursued, is the way of preparation of a beast.

227. How would this infallible doctrine be true, that it is perfection in knowledge by which the all-knowing differs (from others). If you should become all-knowing without learning?

228. Meditation without hearing (learning) though it succeeds for a while, but will soon fail afterwards. You may melt well gold and silver, but if you take away the fire, they grow hard again.

श्रद्धाः कीटः यः जटः चोः जः चर्डा। श्रूरः वैशः श्रैशः तपुः चोश्ररः चीः चीत्। यर्ह्यः यर्ष्ट्रशः जानशः कीटः श्रेः कुचाः जुराः यर्ह्यः पः श्रुः चूर्षः श्रः क्यं द।

प्रदेश, पर्टूश, जेश, मेट, हु, बुचा, या। प्रदेश, पर्टूश, जेश, में, श्री, येथ, था। प्रदेश, पर्टूश, जेश, में, में, सेन्, प्रदेश, में।

229. He that wants understanding, though a literary work be a good composition, will not take it. Though an ornament of gold, beset with jewels, be beautiful, yet would any ox look on it?

230. To know well that it is very true, what is expressed in the elegant sayings of learned men: if you will not understand and practise them, to what use is your knowledge of the shastras?

231. Though an intelligent man knows by himself also, yet he peruses the text-book (composition) of a learned man. Though precious metal is very fine, yet it has less price, till it has not been wrought up.

भाषता. ता. जमांता. चर्चरे. हुश. थे. जेला। धीटा कुचे. चांतीता. टूर. जेला. जमेर. थे। चांतुर. देशका चर्चे. चर्च. कु. थे. जेला जमांता. चर्चर. जचेंट. च. जुथ. थे. राजूना। जमांत्रा. चर्चर. जचेंट. च. जुथ. थे. राजूना। इं. चर्चें शा. शकुचा. शुं. च. केंटा। इंड. दंब. श. शकुचा. शुं. च. केंटा।

विट. क्षियः शंक्षशः रेतप्रः श्रेषः करः रूषा। ट्रेशः १. क्ष्रशः स्थाशः श्लेरः यः द्री ट्रेः राज्ञः रेथः तप्रः क्ष्रशः सीयाशः प्यौदा। 534 पहुचीः देशेः चे. च. ज्याशः पुरः य।

क्रूश, चहना, य. है।

232. Though there be many forests, yet very scarce is the spot where the Sandal-tree grows. Thus also, though there be many learned men, yet elegant sayings seldom are to be found,

233. Gold and silver are known when they have been melted. An element's goodness will appear in the field of battle. A learned man may be judged by his composition of elegant sayings.

234. He that is acquainted with the manners of the world, will exercise true religion. Therefore he that practises good

morals, is the living biography of a saint.

Note.—The numbers omitted in this last enumeration have not been translated now. The whole work consists of 454 Slókas.